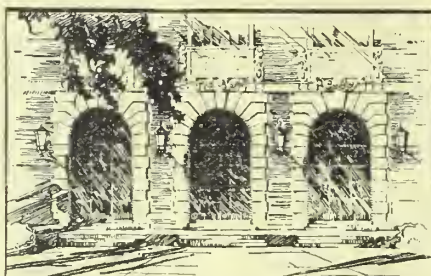


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Great Men
and
Great Women
of
History



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GREAT MEN AND GREAT WOMEN

OF HISTORY

THEIR PORTRAITS

FROM THE RARE AND AUTHENTIC COLLECTION IN THE MUNICH PINAKOTHEK

WITH BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES

AUTHORIZED EDITION



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17 May 19 21. Albert + H. Lybner

Julius II, Pope 1503—1513

Born 1441, died 21 February 1513

Pope Julius II — properly Julianus della Rovere — was born at Albizuola, in 1441. His eminent talents were recognized by his uncle, the pope Sextus IV, to whom he was indebted for promotion to ecclesiastical dignities. In every position, he had shown the traits of a man born to rule, and the same character was maintained after the 1st of November, 1502, when he was elected Pope. His bold and resolute policy might have made him rather a great general in warfare than a ruler of the Church. During his pontificate, he was strenuous in his measures for the defence and extension of the papal dominion in Italy, for the liberation of Italy from foreign, and especially from French, control. To obtain these ends, Julius would act in alliance with various parties, to whom he did not consider himself bound, save by the requirements of his own able policy.

He expelled from Italy the notorious Caesar Borgia, conquered Bologna and other towns, and in 1509, joined the league of Louis XII of France and the Emperor Maximilian, against the republic of Venice. When Venice had restored to the Holy See the coast-lands that had been seized, Julius II, in 1511, joined the so-called «holy league» of Venice, Spain, England and Switzerland, against France, and in the war soon following, he personally led on his own troops. In 1511, a Council was convoked by the Emperor Maximilian and Louis XII, to meet at Pisa, and consult on measures of Church Reformation; and the Pope, in prompt opposition to their design, projected a general Council to assemble in the Lateran, 1512. He was still active in the prosecution of far-reaching designs, even in the latest year of his life. He died on the 21st of February, 1513.

Julius II had an extraordinary presence. His portrait shows us a tall but lank man, with fiery and penetrating eyes, energetic (almost hard) features, and wearing in his latest years a long dependent beard, which in his time was exceptional. So we are told by the portrait painted by Rafael, who in 1508 was invited by the Pope to aid in the decoration of the Vatican. Julius, amid all his warfare, knew well how to care for the arts and sciences. He invited also to Rome the great artists, Bramante and Michel-Angelo. The foundation stone of St. Peter's Church was laid by Julius II.



ent par Raphael

Grave par Morice

JULES II.

Maximilian I, German Emperor, 1493—1519

Born 22 March 1459, died 12 January 1519

Maximilian I, when thirty-four years old, succeeded his father, Frederick III, who died in 1493 — the last of the German Emperors who were crowned at Rome. The accession of Maximilian was for Germany the beginning of a transition from mediaeval to modern culture, and led to an extension of the empire's claims. Burgundy and the Netherlands were gained by the Emperor's marriage with Maria of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, and by the marriage of his son, Philip, with Johanna of Castile, a claim of succession to the throne of Spain was secured. Again, by the marriage of his grandson, Ferdinand, with Anna of Hungary, a prospect of ruling over Bohemia and Hungary was opened.

At the Diet of Worms (1495) the Emperor instituted the Imperial Court of Appeal, for the conservation of a perpetual Peace of the Empire; and to make easier the exercise of its authority, he divided Germany into ten large circles. Meanwhile, he was studious to aid the progress of art and science. The poetic and prosaic literature of his time is filled with praise of his courage and his success in warfare; but he failed in his war against Louis XII of France, and consequently lost Milan.

At once mediaeval in his chivalrous love of warfare, and romantic adventures, but modern in his patronage of art and science — Maximilian I united in his person the middle ages and modern times. He was especially 'the child of his times'.



Henry VIII, King of England 1509—1547

Born 28 June 1491, died 28 January 1547

Henry the Eighth's accession to the throne was hailed with national jubilation. He had shining endowments of mind and of body. His extensive learning had chiefly a theological bias; his presence was made imposing by native dignity and manly beauty. Meanwhile, he had attained, even in his youth, a masterly power of concealing his own real character. At the outset of his career, no man suspected or foreboded that he was at heart an egotistic despot.

Led by political motives, he married Catherine of Arragon, the widow of his brother, and the aunt of the Emperor, Charles V. She bore to him the daughter to whom history afterwards gave the title of the »bloody Mary«.

Henry VIII, early in his reign, acted in alliance with the Emperor Charles V, against France; but later he was the friend of Francis I, whom he aided in warfare against his enemy. His opposition to the Emperor was made useful for Henry's own purpose of divorcing his first wife — who was the aunt of Charles V. Her strictly virtuous life had already made her presence felt, as an unwelcome restraint of the King's will. He now found a pretext for divorce in the fact that she was his brother's widow, and consequently her near relationship had made her second marriage invalid, and unlawful as defined by canon law. The king's real motive in seeking for a divorce was the fact, that already he had resolved to marry another. Catholic historians (who of course detest Henry, as the destroyer of their Church in England), have assured us, that his passion for the charming Anna Boleyn had made the divorce of Catherine inevitable. On the other hand, Protestant scholars have shown, that Anna Boleyn first returned from France, where she had been educated, in 1527; but the king's attempts to gain a divorce of his first wife had begun as soon as 1521. However this might be, he was resolved to move heaven and earth, to carry his own will into effect. To help him, Bishop Cranmer addressed appeals for aid to all foreign Universities, and even to the rulers of Jewish Synagogues. Excepting Luther and Melancthon, the most celebrated divines of the time declared the first marriage unlawful. Pope Leo X, however, resolutely refused to grant his consent to a second marriage; and Henry, therefore, resolved to separate himself and his kingdom from the Holy See. Moreover, prospects of gaining for his own use the riches of the Church in England, and a vast extension of the royal power, acted also as motives, perhaps almost as powerfully as the king's passionate love of Anna. He now compelled the English Clergy to admit and declare on oath that, according to a most ancient statute, the king had supremacy over the Church in England; and on the 14th of November 1532 he married Anna Boleyn. The Parliament was now compelled by royal power, to declare that succession to the throne must belong to the offspring of this second marriage. In accordance with this law, England's greatest ruling power — Elizabeth — succeeded to the throne.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher (of Rochester) had to the last refused to give their sanction to the king's divorce; and consequently both were now put to death. Henry's cruel and bloodthirsty nature revealed itself more and more. Scarcely four years had passed since their marriage when the king showed himself weary of Anna, his second wife, against whom false charges of infidelity were urged. She was of course condemned and executed, and next day Henry married Jane Seymour. His earnest wish was fulfilled when by this third wife, he was made father of a son and heir; but very soon afterwards the queen died.

In order to gain the alliance and friendship of Protestant Princes on the continent, Henry next married, without delay, the Princess Ann of Cleves, but, with almost equal expedition, they were separated by the king's own authority. Soon afterwards, he married Catherine Howard. Apparently some real grounds were found for the charges of unfaithfulness urged against this queen, and certain courtiers were found guilty as her admirers. They were alike condemned and executed, 12 February, 1542. Henry was, in fact, a thorough wife-murderer; a Royal Bluebeard! And yet — as in the case of Bluebeard — there was found, at last, a wife who could manage or rule even such a husband. This last queen, Catherine Parr (the fair widow of Lord Latimer) led the King in her own way, and often to a good end. He allowed the hereditary rights of his two daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, whose claims he once had set aside. He was now reconciled with the Emperor, and the costly warfare against France was ended. But even Catherine's influence failed to quell the fierceness of Henry's temper. He died 28 January 1547; and the latest utterance from the royal lips was a sentence of death pronounced on the Duke of Suffolk.



Ulrich, Duke of Württemberg, 1498–1550

Born 1487, died 1550

Ulrich, son of Count Henry of Württemberg, brother of the reigning duke, Eberhard II, was born in 1487. When the latter was deposed, Ulrich's father was the nearest heir, but his feebleness of mind made him incapable of assuming the government. Consequently, Ulrich, then only eleven years old, was appointed as successor of his uncle. The education of the youth was confided to the care of Count Fürstenberg, aided by twelve councillors. A want of union in their advice was, probably, the cause of their failure. The youth's abilities, naturally good, were never rightly developed. His majority was asserted by the Emperor, in 1503, when Ulrich was only sixteen years old: and he began his reign by imposing on his subjects intolerably heavy taxes, mostly raised to pay debts incurred by his own licentious conduct. This excited, among the peasantry the insurrection called »the Bund (or Union) of Poor Conrad«, by which both the duke and the nobility were threatened. The nobility also had suffered under Ulrich's tyrannous rule; but he now came forward to aid them — chiefly in the Tübingen Treaty of 1514, which was sanctioned by the Emperor — and the peasants were soon defeated.

Ulrich, soon afterwards, was denounced by the leading men of the Suabian League. His murder of Hans von Hutten, and his cruel treatment of his wife (the sister of William IV of Bavaria) were especially condemned by Ulrich von Hutten, brother of the murdered man, and by William of Bavaria, both members of the League. By their intervention, the Emperor (in 1516) was led to issue his imperial ban against Ulrich. It was soon recalled, and again the League was defied by Ulrich, who seized as his own the imperial town of Reutlingen. In consequence of this act, he was attacked by the League's army and driven out of his dukedom. The validity of this expulsion was declared at Augsburg in 1519, when the forfeited land was given to the House of Hapsburg. In a restless search for friends, to aid him in winning back his land, Ulrich now wandered from court to court, until 1534, when his kinsman, Philip of Hessen, by force of arms, regained for him the dukedom; but on the condition, that Ulrich would henceforth aid the Reformation in Württemberg. Later he took part in the Schmalkald War, and consequently had to pay fines and cede some districts. He died in 1550.



Charles V, German Emperor, 1519—1556

Born 24 February 1500, died 21 September 1556

Charles V, born on the 24th of February 1500, was the son of Philip, Archduke of Austria, by his wife Johanna (heiress to the throne of Spain) and, as the grandson of the emperor Maximilian I, inherited a vast, complex dominion over lands never before united under a European monarch. Aided by the Elector of Saxony, Charles was elected emperor in 1519, when Francis I of France was the rival candidate. The emperor, only nineteen years old, had been educated in Spain, and knew nothing of the great controversy then disturbing Germany. He was therefore incapable of sympathy with the people in their contest for religious freedom; and in 1521, at Worms, he condemned the Reformation — thus placing himself in opposition to demands that became more and more urgent during his reign, and made his rule difficult in the extreme.

In Italy and Burgundy, the Emperor's claims were opposed by his rival Francis I, and the result was a long warfare, consisting of four wars. In the first, Charles, in alliance with the Pope Leo X, was victorious, especially in the battle of Pavia, where his rival was made a prisoner. In 1526 the Peace of Madrid ended this first war. The second war was on the whole successful. Charles defeated the Holy League of Cognac. Charles of Bourbon (who had come over to the side of the Emperor) captured Rome; and Genoa severed itself from France; but Burgundy was forfeited. Charles, then made a speedy journey in to Italy, and at Bologna was crowned as Emperor, and as King of Lombardy. This second war was closed by the Peace of Cambray (1529) in which Charles lost the greater part of all that the first war had gained.

After 1530, the Emperor postponed a further consideration of Protestant claims. He now required a union of all German Princes, to oppose the Turks, whose forces he defeated, especially by the capture of Tunis (1535) where twenty thousand Christian slaves were liberated. Meanwhile Francis I had conquered Savoy. His long series of contests against the Emperor was interrupted (in 1538) by the «ten years truce» of Nice (soon broken) and at last warfare was ended by the Peace of Crespy (1544).

Charles now turned his attention to the affairs of Germany, where the Schmalkald Alliance of Protestant Princes had been formed in 1531. The want of closer union in their councils led to their defeat by the Emperor, at Mühlberg in 1547; but it was especially caused by Maurice of Saxony, who aided the imperial army. When he had gained his object, he returned to aid the Protestants, whose position was then greatly strengthened. In the Augsburg Interim (1548) Charles conceded their demands for administration of the Sacrament under two forms and for the marriage of the clergy; but their full demand of religious freedom was first granted at the Treaty of Passau, in 1552. Meanwhile, Maurice had formed against Charles a secret alliance with Henry II of France.

In 1556, the Emperor resigned the government, leaving Germany to his brother Ferdinand, and Spain, with Italy and the Netherlands, to his son Philip. Worn out in mind and body, Charles then retired to the monastery San Yuste, in Spain, where he died on the 21st of February, 1558.



PROGENIES · DIVVM · QVINTVS · SIC · CAROLVS · ILLE
IMPERII · CAESAR · LVMINA · ET · ORA · TVLIT
AET · SVAE · XXXI
ANN · M · D · XXXI

Henry II, King of France, 1547–1559

Born 31 March 1519, died 10 July 1559

Henry II, King of France, second son of King Francis I and his wife, Claudia (daughter of Louis XII) was born at St. Germain en Laye, 31 March, 1519. He lived in Spain as a hostage, from 1526 to 1529, and was married to Catherine de' Medici, with whom Italian manners were introduced into France. After his accession to the throne, 1547, the French Court was utterly changed in character and appearance. Old officers were dismissed; others who had been expelled by Francis I returned; Diana of Poitiers (once mistress of Francis I, but now, in alliance with the Constable de Montmorency) exercised a strong influence over the young King, and at a later time, the Guise party made themselves absolute in the government, which was, in fact, controlled by the ambitious brothers, Duke Francis and the Cardinal, Charles of Lorraine. At home the Reformed were persecuted, and their goods were confiscated; and abroad warfare was stirred up, to make the services of the Guises seem indispensable. Thus Henry was made to begin a war with England, by which he won back Boulogne, in 1550. The religious dissensions prevalent in Germany were next made serviceable to France. The Protestants led by Maurice of Saxony, were induced to support his alliance with Henry against the Emperor; and the treaty, signed at Chambord in 1552, was very soon followed by successes won for Henry. He captured easily Toul and Verdun, also Nancy, and a part of Alsace. The fortress of Metz fell by treachery, on the 10th of April, 1552, and could not be re-conquered by the Duke of Alba. The war in Italy had results less favourable on the side of Henry and — wearied by its continuation — he signed in 1556, at Vaucelles, a treaty for a five years' truce. This treaty was broken in the next year, when the Duke of Guise — acting with the sanction of the Pope, Paul IV — attacked, without success, the army led by Alba. Meanwhile, in the Netherlands, the fortune of war was against the French army led by Montmorency, who especially suffered defeat at St. Quentin, in 1557. Henry II, now almost despairing, made the Duke of Guise governor of the whole kingdom, and success at first attended him. He re-captured Calais, in 1558, and then took the fortress of Thionville. The triumph of the Guise party seemed complete, when Mary Stuart, in 1558, married the Dauphin; but in the same year, the French were defeated by the Spanish forces, at Gravelines, and Elizabeth acceded to the throne of England. To oppose the spread of Protestantism, it was demanded now that France must act in concert with Spain. In 1559, therefore, Henry II signed the treaty of Château-Cambresis, concluded with Spain and England, and confirmed, as the King had intended, by the marriage of Elizabeth, his oldest daughter, with Philip II of Spain. To celebrate their union, festivities took place, among them a grand tournament, in which the Earl of Montmorency, by accident, inflicted on the King a wound in the right eye which, after ten days, proved fatal, 10 July, 1559.

Henry II left France, exhausted by party strife and war, and burdened with debts amounting to forty millions of livres. He had ambition to win renown, and was not quite destitute of energy and political ability; but his good qualities were cast into the shade by a want of firm and independent resolution. Through this defect, he yielded himself, as an unresisting sacrifice, to the influence of others; and his Court was made a revolting exhibition of vice.



Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, 1542–1568

Born 7 December 1542, died 8 February 1587

Mary Stuart, born, 7 December, 1542, daughter of James V of Scotland, and Maria of Loraine, received her education in France, and in 1558 was married to the Dauphin (afterwards Francis II of France). He died in 1560, and Mary returned to Scotland in the year 1561, when the Reformation had already been urged on by the fervid zeal of John Knox, and his Protestant supporters. No circumstances could be less favourable than those of the Queen at such a time. Her education had made her a decided Catholic, and her manners had been acquired at the Court of France. Her creed and her so called »French gaiety« — were detested by many leading men among her subjects, and she found herself almost solitary in her native land. Placed in these circumstances, she, in 1565, married her cousin, Lord Darnley, an ambitious and dissolute man, who treated her cruelly. James VI of Scotland — afterwards James I of England — was the offspring of this unhappy marriage. The year of his birth, 1566, was also the year when Darnley sent assassins to murder in the Queen's presence, a harmless, Italian lute-player, named Rizzio, who sometimes played for her recreation. This crime was soon followed by another one that still remains partly hidden in mystery, and casts a cloud over Mary's reputation. She had already shown a partiality for Earl Bothwell, when the violent death of Darnley took place. He was destroyed by an explosion of gunpowder, and Bothwell was generally regarded as the murderer. Yet he still enjoyed the confidence of the Queen; it was believed, therefore, that she had been his accomplice, and when she married him, a storm of indignation arose in Scotland. In 1567, Lord Murray, her natural brother, compelled her to abdicate, in favour of her only son, and she was imprisoned in the Castle of Lochleven, whence she was liberated by Lord Douglas. Her adherents now collected their forces; but suffered a decisive defeat at Langside, 13 May 1568. Mary was compelled to escape into England, and to ask for royal protection; but Queen Elizabeth demanded, that her cousin should first make herself clear of blame, as regarded the murder of Darnley. Meanwhile, she must remain a prisoner in England.

Then followed removals to several places of imprisonment, and plots for the Queen's escape were contrived by the Duke of Norfolk, Babington, and others, aided by some foreign courts; and lastly by a papal bull against Elizabeth, who now wished to be liberated from her dangerous prisoner. Mary, for aiding in Babington's plot, was accused of high treason, and condemned to death. The sentence, confirmed by Parliament, was signed by Elizabeth, after long hesitation. On the 8th of February, 1587, the unhappy Queen was beheaded, in the Castle of Fotheringhay. Her courage and her religious resignation were preserved in her latest moments.



Engraved by F. Bartolozzi

8 Reims Del.

F. Bartolozzi Sculp.

MARY QUEEN

OF SCOTS.

To the Master Wardens & Court
Company of Drapers, This Plate
is Dedicated, by their most obedient



of Assistants of the Worshipful
from a Picture in their Possession
humble Servant, Spiridione Romani.

Published as the Act directs Jan. 20. 1779. by John Boydell Engraver in Chancery Lane London.

Don Juan d'Austria, Spanish General of the 16th Century

Born 24 February 1547, died 1 October 1578

John of Austria (commonly called Don Juan d' Austria) a natural son of the emperor Charles V, was born at Regensburg, on the 24th of February 1547. His mother, Barbara Blomberg, was the daughter of a Regensburg freeman. In retirement at a country place in Spain, he was educated under the care of Luis de Quijada, one of the emperor's confidential friends, and was first recognized after the decease of his father who, in his last will, had named him as a natural son. King Philipp II then invited him to the Court, (in 1559) and sent him, with the Infant Don Carlos, to the High School of Alcala, where he remained until 1564.

It was soon evident, that the youth, who excelled his comrades mostly in physical exercises, was better qualified for a military career than for the clerical life that the King had once chosen for him. Philip in vain tried to subdue his brother's natural impetuosity, but meanwhile was assured of his loyalty, and then appointed him Admiral. In this capacity, he overcame in several battles the African corsairs, and so far won the King's confidence that, in 1569, he was made Commander in Chief of the troops sent to quell an insurrection of the Moors in Granada. Here, after fighting several hard battles, he was victorious, in 1570, and in the following year his reputation was confirmed by a greater victory. The republic of Venice had then formed an alliance with Spain and with the Pope, against the Turks under the Sultan Selim II; and to Don Juan d'Austria was given the head command of the allied fleets, while the Turkish fleet, superior in force, was commanded by Ali-Pascha. On the 7th of October, 1571, a naval fight took place in the bay Lepanto, and a decisive victory was won by the allies. It would have been made even more advantageous on their side, if the Admiral's plan of further action had not been opposed by a Council of War. In 1573 he conquered Tunis and here, as in the Morea, he wished to establish a kingdom; but Philip II opposed the plan, and did not even make him Infant of Spain.

In 1575 the conqueror by land and sea was made Governor of all the Spanish possessions in Italy, and in 1576 he was sent as Governor to the Netherlands, where (it was hoped) his mild and generous rule might win back the loyalty of the disturbed provinces. In disguise, he travelled through France and arrived at Luxemburg, on the 4th of November, 1576. To gain the confidence of the people, he spared no pains; he even disbanded his Spanish army there stationed; but nothing coming from Spain could be viewed without suspicion; no policy could reconcile the Representative States, who, at the end of the year 1577, formally deposed their Governor. He now led his Spanish troops into the field, and gained a victory at Gemblours, on the 31st of January 1578; but he failed in an engagement near Mechlin, on the 1st of August, in the same year. Meanwhile, France had interfered in aid of the revolt in the Netherlands, and the position of the Governor was most discouraging. There was also a private cause for the depression to which he yielded. The King had refused to aid him in a romantic plan, for liberating Mary Queen of the Scots, then a prisoner in England, and for winning her as his wife. Utterly disappointed, he placed himself at the head of an insufficient body of troops, and retired to a fortified position near Namur. Soon afterwards, he was there seized with a disease like the plague, and died on the 1st of October, 1578, when he was only thirty-one years old. His remains were interred in the Escorial.

The Victor of Lepanto was one of the most distinguished generals of his time. His noble and amiable character gained for him the attachment of his soldiers, and in society his youthful handsomeness and chivalrous address were generally admired.



PAR ANT. V. LEST A. MAIN. DOR.

D, IOAN. AB AVSTRIA:
FR. PHILIPPI REGIS HISP. CATHOLICI.

William I of Nassau-Orange, Stadtholder of the Netherlands,

1572—1584

Born 25 April 1533, died 10 July 1584

William I, »the Silent«, Prince of Orange, and Count of Nassau, was born at the Castle of Dillenburg, in Nassau, on the 25th of April 1533. As the oldest son of Count William, the Elder, of Nassau, by his second wife, Juliana of Stolberg, he inherited, in 1544, on the decease of Renatus of Nassau (who died, leaving no children) the Principality of Orange in Provence. As the favourite page of Charles V, he received at Brussels a Catholic education. In 1544 he was made Commander of an army sent against France. Afterwards, Philip II of Spain gave him a place in the Council of State at Brussels, and made him Governor of Holland, Zeeland, and Utrecht. In this capacity William was led to oppose more and more Philip's measures for the suppression of religious and political freedom, and after the insurrection of 1566, he was energetic in his endeavours to restore peace; but while his work of pacification was succeeding well, the Duke of Alba appeared with a Spanish army in the Netherlands. Here the Governor resigned his office, and by his retirement to Dillenburg, escaped the fate of Egmont and Hoorn; but his goods were confiscated.

William, who had long been disposed to take the Protestant side, now openly avowed his new faith, and again placed himself at the head of the people, in their contest to maintain their right of self-taxation. Alba, by his disregard of this right, had excited an insurrection, when William raised against him the party known as the »water-beggars«, whose efforts were victorious. They liberated from Spanish rule both Holland and Zeeland, and at Dortrecht (1572) recognized the Stadtholder as their only rightful and royal governor. His subsequent victories won at Gertruidenburg and Middelburg (1574) and at Leyden (where he raised the siege) made him more and more powerful; and the general result of his services was seen in the Utrecht Union of the 23rd January 1579. The five northern provinces — to which, rather later, Oberyssel and Gröningen were added — were then united, by inseparable bond; and thus was laid a foundation for the Republic of the Netherlands. Two years later, the deposition of Philip II was declared; and it was then intended to confer on William the hereditary title of Count of the Netherlands; but his death prevented this promotion. On the 10th of July, 1584 he was assassinated at Delft, by a fanatic named Balthasar Gérard.

William was four times married. His first wife was Anna, daughter of Maurice of Saxony; and his fourth wife was Louise, daughter of Admiral Coligny. The first was the mother of Prince Maurice, and the fourth was the mother of Henry Frederick of Nassau. Both these sons were engaged in warfare against Spain.

The founder of independence for the Netherlands, was esteemed for his personal traits; his energetic public life was united with amiability at home, and his love of liberty led him to make sacrifices of his own ease and safety. He had a persuasive power of speech, but generally preferred silence, and to this last trait his surname — »the Silent« — refers.



Guilielmus D. G. Princeps Auroica; Comes Nassavia Catzenelshynga, Vianoe, Dietzue, Lingae,
 Buvra, Sclerlami, etc. Marchio Verae et Flossingae; Do^r et Baro Brede, Diest, Crimbergue, Arlay,
 Wieretti, Gaste, bellin etc. Vice-comes hareautarius, Antwerpue, et Bisancie, Gubernator Generalis
 Brabantiae, Hollandiae, Zelandiae, Frisiae, Ultraiechi, Archithalassus maris inferioris Germaniae.

Cum privilegio senatonali Ord. Conf. Prov.
 IP unde Venne coc. Middelb. 1627

Exe. Virum, vita qui Jura tutissima tenent
 Exe. Virum, vincti ius auge, decus, honor

A unde Venne puxit.
 W. Delle, sculpit

Pasquale Cicogna, Doge of Venice, 1585—1595

Pasquale Cicogna belonged to the younger aristocracy of Venice; for only two hundred years before his time, his ancestor Marco Cicogna, an apothecary, was raised to patrician rank, on account of services to the State. Like him, Pasquale could look back on a life made honourable by patriotic services. As Governor of Candia, he had won distinction in war against the Turks, and had gained promotion to the rank of a Procurator. At home he was renowned for wisdom and piety. The latter, it was believed, had once been attested by a miracle. It was mainly to be ascribed to his personal merits that he, a young patrician (the eighty-eighth on the list of candidates) was elected Doge, 18 August, 1585, when Vincenzo Morosini was a rival candidate.

The policy of Venice at this time was to oppose the King of Spain — then also King of Naples, and Duke of Milan — by means of a close alliance with France. Accordingly, when Henry III, whom they had supported, fell under the assassin's dagger (1589) the Venetians were the first to recognize Henry IV of Navarre, as King of France, and for this service he was always thankful.

The Inquisition was so far offended by this recognition, that an attempt was made to implicate, not only the Senate, but also the aged and pious Doge, in the guilt of favouring heresy; but the proposed examination happily failed. After a reign of ten years, Cicogna died at Venice, 2 April, 1595.

The reign of this doge is made memorable, chiefly by the fine architectural works of the time; among them the glorious Rialto Bridge, connecting, by the span of a single arch, the two sides of the Grand Canal; and next to be named, the decorations of the new Doges' Palace, the Library, and the Mint. It was Cicogna who, in a special session of the Senate, in 1593, accepted the costly *«Brevier Grimani»* — that wonder in the art of miniature-painting. It had been bequeathed to his native city, by a Venetian descendant from the first possessor, and now was delivered to the Doge by the Procurator, Marcantonio Barbaro.



PASCHALIS.
CICONIA.
DVX.
VENETIAR.

Philip II, King of Spain 1556—1598

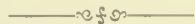
Born 21 May 1527, died 13 September 1598

Philip II, King of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V, by his wife, Isabella of Portugal, was born at Valladolid, on the 21st of May 1527. His education, under clerical direction, was excellent but one-sided, and served to develop a character intolerant of opposition. When only sixteen years old, he married his first wife, Maria of Portugal, who died in 1554. He next married Queen Mary I, of England, who was eleven years older than himself; but he could never win the favour of her English subjects. In 1555 he left England under the Queen's government. Later in the same year, he gained, by the gift of his father, the Netherlands and the Italian possessions, to which were added in 1556, Spain and her colonies. He was now regarded as the mightiest ruler of his time, and Spain — still making progress in wealth and power — had able commanders, an incomparable fleet, and great commercial prosperity — all doomed to decay in the course of a few years.

Philip's policy was a result of his absolute devotion to the Catholic Church. He would extend over his whole possessions the unity of government that had been asserted by his father in Spain, and would make the Church dominant over all the heresies of Protestants, in his own kingdom, and in foreign lands. He nevertheless asserted the rights of his own throne against Papal jurisdiction, as in 1557, when, by his capture of Rome, he induced the Pope to rest content in neutrality. Afterwards, in alliance with England, he prosecuted the war with France which Charles V had left as an inheritance, and brought it to an end soon after the victory of St. Quentin, 10 August 1557 (of which, however, he failed to make a sufficient use) and another at Gravelines, in 1558; at last, by the Peace of Câteau-Cambrésis, by which he gained, in 1559, possession of several frontier-places in Italy and the Netherlands. Spain had now gained a predominant position, from which she was soon to fall; but some victories served for a time to delay the decline of her power.

Philip by expulsion of many subjects, known as Moriscos, or baptized Moors, had impelled them to unite with the Turks, in plundering the coasts of Italy and Spain; but their naval power was destroyed by the great victory won by his half-brother, Don Juan d'Austria, in the battle off Lepanto, 1571. After the extinction of the Burgundian dynasty in Portugal, the throne was claimed by Philip, as the son of the oldest sister of Emanuel the Great, and once more Portugal was made a Spanish province. But failure attended the King's chief plan — to make Catholicism again dominant in Western Europe; especially in the Netherlands, where the northern provinces revolted; and in France he failed when — in alliance with the Guise party — he endeavoured to raise to the throne his daughter Clara Eugenia, in opposition to the Huguenot, Henry IV. Queen Elizabeth of England aided the revolt in the Netherlands, and attacked the Spanish colonies in America. In Ireland — where the Papal See had given him power — Philip excited an insurrection, and against England he fitted out, at vast cost, in 1588, the great fleet called «the invincible Armada»; but it was partly destroyed and partly dispersed by the violent storm that aided the English in their defence. In revenge, the English, in 1596, sunk a Spanish fleet off Cadiz, and destroyed the town. While Spain's naval power was thus greatly lessened, the unhappy war with France (1585—1598) had been most disastrous in its results for Spain. The King did not long survive the conclusion of this war. After enduring severe suffering, he died at Madrid, on the 13th of September, 1598, leaving the throne to his incapable son and successor — Philip III. The older son, Don Carlos, had died in prison 1568. Spain was left burdened with a debt of more than a million ducats. So rapid was the «decline and fall» of Spain in Philip's reign.

In no small measure, the blame for this rapid decline must be ascribed to Philip's personal character. True; he was energetic, or rather restless, in endeavours to gain his ends; but his powers were not equal to his vast undertakings. Reserved, taciturn, proud, and suspicious — he trusted in his own judgment, and chose to carry out his own resolutions, without asking others for advice. In the extirpation of heresies he saw the only way of preserving order, and no measures were for him too severe. The Inquisition, therefore, was maintained in his reign. On the other side, he was generous in aiding scholars and artists. In memory of his great victory at St. Quentin, he built the splendid Laurentius-monastery of the Escorial.





Philippus II. Caroli V. filius, Hispaniarum, Indiarum, Neapolis, Siciliae, Hierosolymae, etc. rex catholicus.
Mediolani, Brabantiae, Geldriae, etc. dux. Flandriae, Hollandiae, Hannoniae, etc. comes. Aetatis fuit 59.

Elizabeth, Queen of England 1558–1603

Born 17 September 1533, died 3 April 1603

Elizabeth, Queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII and his wife Anna Boleyn was born, 17 September 1533, at Greenwich. During the time of her early youth, her claim of succession to the throne was denied by her father. Educated as a Protestant, she had many persecutions to suffer during the reign of her half-sister, Mary; especially when accused of being implicated in a plot against the life of the queen, and therefore condemned and imprisoned in the Tower. Her own prudence on the side of her defence was then her only means of escape from death. Afterwards, she lived remote from the Court, and found a safe shelter at Hatfield-House (Herts.) until the death of Queen Mary, 17 November 1558, when the will of the Parliament called Elizabeth to the throne.

Her first care was to strengthen her government by surrounding the throne with the leading men of the Protestant party, and at their head was placed as her chief adviser William Cecil, a man eminent for his talents and his energetic character. So aided by her own chosen advisers, the Queen carried out successfully her own plans: chiefly to complete the reformation, and so to establish by Parliament, as national and made subject to her supremacy, the Church called the Anglican, or Episcopal Church. Next by a firm foreign policy, ever conscious of an ultimate purpose, she laid the foundation of England's greatness and importance. At first, the war with France, in which England had been involved by Spain, was ended by the Peace of Câteau-Cambrésis, in 1559. But when Francis II, husband of Mary, queen of the Scots, in opposition to the terms of that Peace, assumed for himself the title of king of England, conflicts with Scotland began, and these were not ended by the death of Francis, which soon followed. His widow Mary now would unite the whole of Great Britain, as under her own royal authority, and so would restore Catholicism. The defeat of her party in Scotland compelled Mary, as a fugitive, to ask for protection by Elizabeth, and she was indeed protected, but as the prisoner of the English Queen. Then followed the conspiracies concerted by her adherents for Mary's liberation; but the end of all these attempts was that the Queen of the Scots was executed, 8 February 1587.

Elizabeth cannot be absolved from the guilt of participation in the perpetration of that murder, though the principal share in the crime must be ascribed to the Parliament, who regarded the execution of Mary as an act demanded for the sake of national peace. Thus, by the death of Mary, a heavy blow and discouragement was inflicted on the Catholic interest. The Pope no longer delayed to issue a ban of excommunication against Elizabeth; and Philip II of Spain determined to collect and send forth a large naval expedition for the conquest of Great Britain. He had previously been provoked by the Queen. She had aided the men of the Netherlands, in their revolt against Spain, and had allowed her bold admiral, Francis Drake, to devastate the coasts of Peru; and, in 1586, to sink a large fleet of Spanish transports in the harbour of Cadiz. Later, when the mighty Spanish Armada entered the Channel (1588), Elizabeth, who had already expended much money for the defence of her coasts, could send against Spain but a small fleet. This however was so well commanded, that it was strong enough to destroy almost utterly what remained of the Armada, when first it had been devastated and scattered by exposure to a most violent storm. This was one of the heaviest blows that could be inflicted on the power of Spain, whose naval predominance was henceforth transferred to England. Elizabeth continued her warfare against Spain to the death of Philip II in 1598. She supported Henry IV of Navarre, when he had ascended the throne of France (in 1589) and was engaged in his conflict with the Catholic League. Near the close of her reign, Ireland — but loosely hitherto united to England — was made dependent as an English Province. The material and commercial wealth of England was greatly augmented; especially maritime foreign trade was carefully protected, the foundations of our Indian colonies were laid; and agriculture, industry and finance were made prosperous by improved regulations.

Elizabeth had never been able to decide on taking a husband, and remained unmarried to the end. Philipp II, who had been one of her suitors, was hated as being a „fanatic Catholic.“ It was her pride to die with the title of „the Virgin Queen“, though her life could not be fairly represented as without a flaw. The earls Leicester and Essex were her acknowledged favourites. The latter, charged as an accomplice in the insurrection of 1601, was at last executed, after some royal delay; and the queen's subsequent depression was extreme. She lingered on, rather than lived, in deep melancholy and utterly joyless, until 3 April 1603, when she died.

Elizabeth possessed depth of understanding; and took care to surround herself with able councillors, though she did not always respect the will of her Parliament. As an able queen, ruling in an age marked by an extraordinary development of intellect, she was suitably accomplished, spoke French and Italian, and was passionately fond of dancing. On the whole, Elizabeth must be esteemed as one of the greatest and most popular of England's rulers. The foundations of England's greatness were laid in her reign.

POSUI DEVM ADIVTOREM MEVM

Arcus una
Miseri Cordis.
4 D 211



Nata Grævenice
anno Christi
MDXXXIII.
8. Id. Sept.



ELISABET D.G. ANGLIAE, FRANCIAE, HIBERNIAE, ET VERGINIAE REGINA,
FIDEI CHRISTIANAE PROPUGNATRIX ACERRIMA. NVNC IN DNO REQUIESCENS.

*Virginitas os habentisque geris, diuina, Virago,
Sed supra sexum doces animamque Virilem;
Quod saepe altarium docuit verum exitus ingens:
Unde tibi et Regni populi debere fatentur,
Christiandumque colorem, saltem rursusque et hostes,
Quorum Una tua rubens ad morte lacrimata est.*

*Vas tu Semiramiden Babylon super aethera collas,
Offerat et Didona suam Sicionia tellus,
Gens Et Ebrae Indica, Canillam Valsa propago,
Aut Constantini matrem Byzantia ingens,
Atque alias aliae gentes: ecce Angli foreis
Ut quondam fructa est, non nunc clarescat alama.*

*Isaac Oliver
sculpsit
Cognatus non de Regia
Indidit.
procurante Iamno
W. Alabaster.*

P. B. M. Q. 1616.

Henry IV, King of France, 1589–1610

Born 4 December 1553, died 14 May 1610

His amiable and chivalrous nature, his romantic adventures, and his tragical end, have made Henry IV, one of the favourite characters described in history. He was the third son of Antony of Bourbon, by his wife Johanna of Albret, and was born on the 4th of December, 1553. His mother, heiress of Navarre and Bearn, was a woman of heroic courage, and remarkable cheerfulness — qualities that Henry surely inherited. As his father died in 1562, the early training given to the youth was left to his mother's care, and was well suited to form a character of the heroic type. Before he was twenty years old, his position as a leading man on the Protestant side, had attracted the attention of the French Court, where a plot was laid, to withdraw him from Huguenot influence, by means of a marriage with Margaret of Valois (distinct from the older Princess having the same name). His mother refused her consent, but accepted an invitation to the Court, where she died suddenly, 9 June, 1572 — as was then suspected, by wearing poisoned gloves, given to her by the Queen-Mother, Catherine de' Medici. Soon afterwards, on the 18th of August, the marriage took place, and was followed on the 24th, by the Massacre of St. Bartholomew; hence the terrible name of »the bloody marriage«. The leaders of the Guise party — called the »Holy League« — who would gain control over the throne, threatened Henry's life, and induced the Pope, Sextus V, to pronounce against him a ban of excommunication. On the other side, Henry, acting with more vigour, as the leader of the Huguenots, gained a victory over the Court Party — especially in the battle of Courtras — and soon afterwards, in alliance with his uncle, Henry III, he marched on to besiege Paris, then held by the Guise party. On the 2nd of August, 1589, King Henry III was assassinated by Jacques Clément, a Dominican monk; but had time before his death, to declare, that his true successor to the throne was Henry of Navarre, who thereupon claimed the throne of France. But continuous warfare with the Catholic League followed, and Henry failed to win the confidence of the clergy and the nobility, until he accepted, on the 25th of July, 1593, the advice of the Minister de Rosny (later Duke of Sully) and made himself a Catholic. Immediately, and without the drawing of a sword, the gates of Paris were opened to receive him. On this occasion it was reported that he said: — *«Paris vaut bien une messe.»*

The indignation now awakened among the Huguenots was, in 1598, appeased by his celebrated »Edict of Nantes«, (afterwards so cruelly revoked by Louis XIV, in 1685).

In his domestic life, Henry had not an unbroken peace. He divorced his first wife, Margaret of Valois, whose conduct had been not only frivolous but unfaithful. In fairness it must be owned, that Henry himself was not guiltless of inconstancy. The most celebrated of his mistresses was the Countess d'Estrees — known as the »Belle Gabrielle«, of his songs — and he would have married her, and raised her to the throne, had he not been prevented by her tragie fate. She was poisoned, by means of an orange given to her. The King's amours were not so ended. He was especially attracted by the beauty of Henriette d'Entragues; but — yielding to advice given by the Pope, Clemens VIII — he married in 1600 Marie de' Medici, by whom he had several children. Her ambition and irritable temper often annoyed him, though he was kind toward his family, as was shown when a Spanish ambassador suprised the King playing with the little princes and, like a patient horse, letting them ride on his back. A paternal feeling for the people — perhaps the King's best trait — was expressed in his wish, that every one »might have a fowl for his Sunday's dinner«.

Under the wise and generous rule of Henry IV, France prospered at home and abroad; yet he fell by the dagger of an assassin. On the 14th of May, 1610, he was stabbed to the heart by a fanatic named Ravaillac.



I Goltzius sculp

Herman Adolfs
Hortensius

Ce grand Roy que turcs est remply de la grace
De Mars et de Pallas: de ces nobles aveux
Il fut de pas a pas les senties vertueux
Qui na deus le ciel lay prometent une place.

Avec priunt du Roy

Paul de la Roche

correspondant
1611

James I, King of England 1603—1625

Born 19 June 1566, died 8 April 1625

James I was born in Edinburgh, 19 June 1566, as the son of Henry Darnley and Mary Stuart. After his mother's abdication, he was, in 1567, crowned King of Scotland as James VI, and in 1576 he nominally assumed the government, which in fact was entrusted to the care of the earls Lennox and Murray. His education was controlled by fanatic divines, who upheld the stern morals of Calvinism in their rules of Church discipline, and were partisans of an extreme democracy in the domain of politics. These tutors made of the young king a pedantic theologian; but they could not extinguish his belief in the »divine right of kings«. It so happened, therefore, that as soon as he attained his majority and was independent in his management of state affairs, he was continually involved in disputes with the general synod of a realm that was in fact controlled by the authority of the Church. After the decease of queen Elizabeth, in 1603, James became King of England by hereditary right. His accession to the English throne was hailed with rejoicing by the people, who under his government generally expected a removal of all abuses and burdens, especially those which in religious matters had been made intolerable, during the later years of the preceding reign. Despite, however, the promises made in his royal proclamations, the king utterly failed to fulfil the expectations of the people.

Soon after his accession, he had to quell a conspiracy led by Sir Walter Raleigh (a favourite in the court of Queen Elizabeth). This plot was one that might be suppressed in its first stage, but one more formidable was next detected. James himself had some prejudice in favour of Roman dogmas and some ritualistic forms of the Catholic Church; yet he persecuted the Catholics, and with such cruelties that a conspiracy was formed by several of their party, whose object was to destroy all the assembled members of Parliament, by means of an explosion of gunpowder, 1605. The plot was detected, and the chief leaders were arrested and executed; among them Digby, Guy Fawkes and eight others. Next followed a series of coercive laws or prohibitions, so severe, that the very existence of Catholicism was made questionable. A new oath of allegiance was now issued, by which every subscriber was made to promise, that he would recognize no papal claim whatever to any supremacy in secular affairs.

The king was, moreover, almost continually engaged in strife with his own Parliament; for he asserted that even its existence was dependent on his own divine right, while for supplies of money he confessed his dependence on the grants made by his subjects in Parliament.

In his foreign policy also, the king betrayed a want of firm principles and well-directed plans. In the marriage of his daughter Elizabeth with the Palatinate Prince Frederick (later known as »the Winter-king«) James acted in concert with popular wishes, and so found himself compelled, by the »Thirty Years' War« to act in support of the Protestant Princes; but he had at the same time placed himself on the opposite side; first by the intended, though unfulfilled, marriage of his son Charles with the Infanta of Spain; then by a promise that the Prince should marry the catholic princess, Henrietta of Bourbon.

For a psychologist, it is difficult to trace all the mazy ways of a character as singular as that of James I. The popular good sense of his own subjects has justly pronounced, as a verdict in his case:

»Elizabeth was a King; our James is a Queen«.



Qui regis imperio divisos orbe Britannos, A. 1603 | Qui pacis ecclesiam, juvens qui legibus ornat
 Rex tot virorum fortium, A. 1603 | Foruri scholas doctoribus,
 Qui terrore tui solus nominis hostes A. 1603 | Atq; inter vates pangis pia carmina freptro
 Tremis, quietis appetens; Crisp. Bassus figur. sculp. 1603 | Jungis decenter lauream

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, Minister of James I and Charles I of England

Born 20 August 1592, died 23 August 1628

George Villiers, younger son of Sir George Villiers was born 20 August 1592, at the family mansion, Brookesby in Leicestershire. After his father's early decease, and guided by the wishes of his ambitious mother, Mary (née Beaumont) he spent three years in Paris, in order to make himself an accomplished Cavalier, and then entered the University of Cambridge. By his handsome personal traits and his clever address, he soon attracted the notice of King James I, who in 1515 invited him to the Court and appointed him as royal butler. After a short time of service, Villiers was knighted; then took the place of the King's favourite, Robert Carr, and rose rapidly from step to step, until the King made him, in 1623, Duke of Buckingham. He was now on all sides the object of gross adulation, and even the celebrated Lord Bacon crept spaniel-like into his presence, to solicit his patronage. Of course, the favourite made so powerful bestowed places and offices of State on his friends and relatives, or exchanged them for money. The King himself was governed by Buckingham, and Charles I the royal heir, was made to feel that he was dependent on the favour of his father's chief minister.

In his foreign policy Buckingham at first supported the King's son-in-law, the Prince Elector, Frederick V of the Palatinate, then engaged in conflict with the Catholic powers; but after 1620, the minister severed his policy from that of the war party, and sought the friendship of Spain, in aid of Frederick's rehabilitation. By the marriage of Charles, Prince of Wales with a Catholic princess it was hoped that the end would be soonest attained, and therefore Buckingham, in 1623, went with the Prince to Madrid; but here he met with unexpected opposition, and returned to London, greatly annoyed by the failure of his tedious negotiations. Henceforth, he was the bitter enemy of Spain. The British Parliament was delighted by his failure, and soon granted liberal supplies for a war against Spain. But before the projected war began, King James died, 1625.

The accession of Charles I made however no change in Buckingham's position. On the 9th of May, 1625, he was made a member of the Committee appointed by the Privy Council for the regulation of foreign affairs, and here he soon made himself premier and leader. After his return from Madrid, he sought an alliance with France, and this was obtained and confirmed by the marriage of Charles I with the French Princess Maria Henrietta. The next aim of the favourite was to make the Huguenots in France serviceable for his purposes; but in this he was defeated by the able policy of Richelieu, and in England the Parliament earnestly protested against the designs of Buckingham. To win back the favour of the people, he now projected an expedition against Cadiz, but in this he failed once more; next his alliance with France was more and more loosened, and at last was dissolved. Meanwhile, at home his unpopularity was increasing, and the Parliament declared that his arbitrary measures had deserved impeachment. Again he had recourse to proposal of warfare, in order to avert the storm rising against him, and now the Huguenots were to be aided by his interference. He assumed the command of a considerable fleet, but failed in attempting a conquest of the island Ré, and again in trying to raise the siege of La Rochelle. In later attempts to gain supplies for warfare, he was aided by the King, who had granted the Parliament's 'Petition of Rights'. On the 23rd of August, 1628, Buckingham was assassinated by Lieutenant Fenton, an officer who had been degraded in rank. The grief of the King, for the loss of his minister, was hardly greater than the relief from oppression then felt by his subjects.

With all these shades in his character, Buckingham had some meritorious traits. As Lord High Admiral he collected a strong navy, and as Chancellor of the University at Cambridge (1626) he exercised a diligent care for its welfare. He gave some aid to scholars and artists, collected a large gallery of paintings, and was a patron of the drama.



Gustavus II Adolphus, King of Sweden, 1611—1632

Born 9 December 1594, died 16 November 1632

Gustavus II, Adolphus, son of Charles IX, and grandson of Gustavus I (Vasa) was born at Stockholm, 9 December, 1594. A careful education served to develop his superior, natural endowments, and he received from his father an especial training in political affairs. Sweden was involved in difficulties when he came to the throne, in 1611. He was only seventeen years old; but his genial temper and firm will won popular favour. His first aim was to end the threefold warfare in which his land was engaged when his father died. Through England's mediation, he brought to an end the war against Denmark (1613) then turned his arms against Russia, and gained advantages by the Peace of Stolbowa (in 1617) and in 1621 his campaign against the Poles, began a war that, with some interruptions, lasted for nine years. In the course of this time, he made important conquests in Livonia, Kurland, and in Polish-Prussia, and in 1629 he compelled King Sigismund of Poland to leave his victor possessor of the conquered territory in Polish-Prussia.

While engaged in this long warfare, Gustavus Adolphus had paid attention to the events of the Thirty Years' War, and had received from German Princes solicitations for military aid. But he had decided, that first his warfare with Poland must be ended, before he could move efficiently for the aid of Protestantism now in great peril. Accordingly, he landed on the island Usedom, on the 26th of June, 1630, with an army of 13,000 men, and despite difficulties occasioned by the mistrust and indecision of German Princes, he gained on all sides victories over the Imperial forces, compelled the Electors of Brandenburg and Saxony to their alliance with his own army, defeated Tilly at Breitenfeld, and marched as a Conqueror through the Main and Rhine districts. To rescue his allies, threatened by Wallenstein, he returned to Saxony. In the sanguinary battle of Lützen, while he was engaged in a hand-to-hand fight with the enemy's cuirassiers, he fell, fatally wounded, on the 16th of November, 1632.

Gustavus Adolphus was a man of stately build, with blond hair, and large, sparkling eyes. He had a clear, penetrating understanding, and a commanding presence, but was friendly and affable. Strict in his own life, and a foe to all self-indulgence, he afforded by his own conduct proof of true piety, united with gentle and Christian virtues. His worth as a General was fairly estimated by Napoleon I, who classed him with «the eight military heroes of the world». The troops ruled by his strict discipline were devoted to him and confided in him; for he knew how to reward them, and willingly endured the hardships they had to bear. His services in Germany won for Sweden mastery in the Baltic, and a place among the great powers.



GVSTAVVS ADOLPHVS D.G. REX SVEC. GOTH.
ET VAND. MAGNVS PRINCEPS FINLANDIE DVX. ETC.

Paul. Pontius sculp.

Ant. van Dyck pinxit

Mart. vanden Enden excudit Cum privilegio

Maria of Medici, Queen of France, 1600—1642

Born 26 April 1573, died 3 July 1642

Maria of Medici, daughter of Duke Francis II of Tuscany, and Johanna of Austria, was born on the 26th of April 1573. When nearly twenty-seven years old, she married Henry IV of France. Her personal beauty was remarkable, but could not make endurable the despotic traits of her natural character. After the assassination of her husband, she immediately, and with a strong hand, seized the reins of government, and held them during the minority of her son, Louis XIII. Acting in concert with her chief favourite, Concini, she made her Court notorious for its extravagant expenditure and, to win popularity, displayed a false generosity, while the financial condition of the land was growing worse and worse.

When her son had attained his majority, the tyrannous mother still ruled, until 1610, when she was, for a short time, banished from the Court by Albert de Luynes, who was now the King's favourite. He died in 1621; and the queen-mother returned, to rule over her royal but feeble son. In 1624, she invited to her Court Cardinal Richelieu, and gave him a place in her Council of State — an appointment fatal to her own interest! The great statesman, whom she had called to aid her, deprived her of all her influence over the government, and banished her from the Court. Subsequently she escaped into Belgium; and then to Cologne, where — poor and deserted — she died, on the third of July, 1642.



MARIA DE MEDICES REGINA FRANCIAE
TRIVM REGVM MATER

Paul. Pontius sculp

Ant. van Dyck pinxit

cum privilegio

Cardinal Armand Jean Duplessis, Duke of Richelieu, French Statesman

Born 5 September 1585, died 4 December 1642

Armand Jean Duplessis, duke of Richelieu, born in Paris, 5 September 1585, belonged to one of the oldest noble families in Poitou. His first intention — to choose a military career — was changed when his younger brother retired into a convent, and so renounced his possession of the bishopric of Luçon. To secure this, as the property of the family, the elder brother, Armand Jean, took holy orders, and in 1614 the clergy of Poitou sent him as their deputy to the assembly of the States General in Paris. Here by his character and address, he so far made himself beloved at Court, that the Queen Mother, Maria de' Medici, appointed him Almoner, and at the same time her favourite, Concini, made him Secretary of State. After the fall of Concini, 1617, Richelieu was compelled to leave the Court; but was recalled in 1619, in order that he might act as a mediator between the party of the Queen Mother and that of the young king, Louis XIII. The statesman's success was now made sure; in 1622 he received the cardinal's hat, and two years later his place in the State-Council, of which he soon made himself the premier.

For eighteen years Richelieu, though threatened by many and powerful enemies, who made all possible efforts to cause his ruin, maintained his high position, and ruled over the destinies of France. His work was made all the more difficult, as the king rewarded him with but little confidence — to say nothing of any true attachment. The Cardinal, nevertheless, succeeded in making himself so far indispensable, that the Monarch was in fact ever dependent on his adviser; and this too while the Queen Mother was endeavouring to liberate her son from the bonds by which he was held. In 1630 she was compelled to quit the field, and the leaders of her party were sent to the scaffold. In vain the king's brother, the Duke Gaston of Orleans, interfered and, marching with an army from the Netherlands, made an invasion of France. The results were only, that a slaughter of his supporters followed, and his father-in-law, the Duke of Lorraine, forfeited his dukedom.

While Richelieu knew so well how to meet and frustrate the conspiracies of the nobility, he had, at the same time, to contend against the Huguenots, and to destroy their political and «particular» position, which had made them «a State within the State». Henry IV had yielded to them certain garrisons, now claimed as their own, and had given to them privileges by which their separation from the State was confirmed to a large extent.

To attack their position, Richelieu, in 1627, obtained from an assembly of Notables supplies enabling him to prepare and send against the Huguenots an army and a fleet. He then laid siege to La Rochelle, the strongest fortress of the Protestants, attacking it at once by sea and by land. The garrison, after being reduced to famine, was compelled to surrender, and so was destroyed the power of the Huguenots, who still were allowed to retain their freedom in religious belief and in forms of worship.

While Richelieu at home carried out his measures for destroying the power of an egoistic nobility, and for concentrating in the monarchy all political power, his foreign policy was directed mainly to humiliate the House of Hapsburg in Austria and Spain, and to make France dominant over all the States of Europe. The Mantuan war of succession, in 1629, afforded an occasion for his interference in favour of a French vassal, the Duke of Nevers. The Cardinal, assuming arms in his own person, now led an army into Italy, 1630, and by his conquest of Pignerol compelled Austria to surrender Mantua to Nevers, and to withdraw from the district of Veltlin. His interference in the Thirty Years' War led to more important results, by which the possessions and the power of France were greatly enlarged. His military resources were then not sufficient for meeting Austria in open warfare. He therefore acted secretly, in alliance with her enemies, by granting them supplies of money. Afterwards, when his foes at home were subdued, he acted more directly and openly, began a war with Spain, in order to gain the Netherlands, and aided the insurrection in Catalonia, and the rising of the House of Braganza in Portugal. In Germany he supported Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, with the view that his military services might be made available for the conquest of Alsace. When Bernhard died suddenly, 1639 (as reported, by means of poison) Richelieu not only took possession of the duke's conquests, but also, by means of bribery, gained the army once led by Bernhard. The Cardinal's later time was disturbed by the insurrection of Cinq-Mars, though this, like preceding risings against him, was suppressed.

Richelieu was the founder of the power of France. Without his work, the absolute monarchy of Louis XIV would have been impossible. The Cardinal never convoked the States General. Under his rule, Parliament was robbed of its political rights, and though the lower classes obtained legal advantages, by their emancipation from service to the nobility, this relief was made unavailing by an increase of taxation. So great was the Cardinal's love of display, that his household expenditure cost forty million livres; but he bestowed a liberal patronage on arts, sciences, and literature, and himself contributed his «Memoirs» to the literature of his time. He founded the French Academy, reformed the Sorbonne, patronized the drama, and built the Palais-Royal. He was an admirer of beauty in women, but maintained an absolute reserve respecting his own liaisons.



Louis XIII, King of France, 1610 — 1643

Born 27 September 1601, died 14 May 1643

Louis XIII, King of France, son of Henry IV, by his wife Maria de Medici, was born at Fontainebleau, on the 27th of September, 1601. By right of succession he came to the throne, when his father was assassinated, (on the 14th of May 1610,) but his mother then assumed the reins of government. Louis — naturally weak and irresolute — submitted himself to her despotic rule, not only during his minority, but also for several years afterwards. In fact, she and her favourites ruled until 1624, when she invited Cardinal Richelieu to her Court. Meanwhile Louis — whose majority had been recognized in 1614 — had married, in 1615, the Spanish Princess, Anna, and in 1617 had taken a part in the banishment of his mother. She returned in 1621, invited Richelieu to her Court and after the year 1624, made him her chief Minister.

Henceforth the reign of Louis XIII might be called the reign of Richelieu, whose position gave him opportunities for carrying into effect his own threefold policy — to humiliate the House of Hapsburg; to oppose the Huguenots; and to destroy the aristocracy. In the winter of 1624, a French army drove the Spaniards out of Veltin. Soon afterwards, the warfare against the Huguenots — which had been apparently brought to a close by the Treaty of Montpellier, in 1622 — was resumed. In 1628 they surrendered their best fortress, Rochelle, and lost their political rights, but retained their religious freedom. This war was hardly ended, when the King led across the Alps a strong army, to assert the right of a French vassal — the Duke of Nevers — who claimed the duchy of Mantua. When the French had gained some victories, the claim was conceded by the Treaty of Chierasco (1631) and the fortresses, Casale in Mantua and Pignerol in Savoy, were retained by France.

All these and other successes were won by the able policy of Richelieu. In vain his foes endeavoured to destroy his influence. Gaston, the King's brother, and Duke of Orleans — was defeated in 1632. Another foe — Charles of Loraine — lost his lands in 1633; indeed the whole nobility of France was made subject to the throne; and the throne was made subject to Richelieu. He opposed Austria in the 'Thirty Years' War; and aided the Netherlands in their revolt against Spain. To gain for France the left bank of the Rhine, Richelieu made an alliance with Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, after whose death, the lands he had conquered were claimed by France. In 1641 the whole County of Roussillon was ceded to Louis XIII. In the midst of these victories, the King died at St. Germain-en-Laye, on the 14th of May, 1643 — a few months after the decease of Richelieu.

Louis XIII was weak, suspicious and irresolute; but could show courage in the field of battle. In his private life, he was dull and melancholy, sometimes morose. The chase was his chief recreation, but he had some liking for music. His lonely hours were spent, sometimes in doing mechanical work, and sometimes in reading devotional books.



PRÆT OMNI

BVS ASTRIS

GOBOLI REX ARDUA MON

STRAT

SIC PERCVTIT

ALTA

REGNUM VIOLANTIVS

INVITAT

LVDOVICO XIII
FRANCIA ET NAVARRA REGI
HISPANVM HÆRETICOS GERMANVM VICIT ET ANGLVM
QVOD SVPEREST ORBIS VINCERE LVDVVS ERIT

Justin d'Egmont Victor Regius innotuit danti et confertur

Anno 1624

Elizabeth of Bourbon, Wife of King Philip IV of Spain, 1615—1644

Born 22 November 1602, died 6 October 1644

Elizabeth of Bourbon, Queen of Spain, was born at Fontainebleau, on the 22nd of November, 1602. In early childhood she was betrothed by her father, Henry IV of France, to the Prince of Piedmont. After her father's assassination, her mother Maria de' Medici, annulled that betrothal, and made arrangements for a twofold alliance of France and Spain; first by her daughter's marriage to Philip IV of Spain, and next by that of the Infanta Anna Maria of Austria with Louis XIII of France. The former alliance was delayed for two years, on account of the youth of the proposed husband, who was two years younger than his bride. On the 18th of October, 1615, their marriage was celebrated with much splendour, in the cathedral of Bordeaux. A brilliant military escort — several thousands of infantry and cavalry — had conducted the departure of the French Princess as far as the boundary river, Bidassoa, where she was formally given in exchange for the Spanish Infanta, Anna Maria of Austria, betrothed to King Louis XIII of France.

Elizabeth's husband had already confided to his favourite, Olivarez, all the cares of the government, and lived only to amuse himself — a life that was deplored by the young and noble-hearted Queen, who for him and for Spain, had forfeited all her friendships in France, and had made herself at heart a true Spaniard. Bitter was her sorrow for the unworthy position chosen by her husband, and for the bad government now inflicted on Spain. The people, by their homage paid to her, recognized the fact, that she was on their side; especially in 1640, when bad government had led to revolt in Catalonia and in Portugal. In prompt reply to her appeal to the fidelity of the Castilians, they raised then, in the course of a few weeks, an army of 50,000 men; and the Queen was thus encouraged to dismiss from office the absolute minister, Olivarez. In this crisis, Philip IV was roused to take a personal interest in the war, and during his absence from the Court, the Queen herself took charge of the regency. But his military energy was of short duration, and another favourite, Don Luis de Haro, was soon appointed to take charge of the government. Soon after this relapse on the part of Philip, the Queen died, on the 6th of October, 1644, deplored by the people, and even by the King, who now could appreciate her worth, when it was too late. She left two children; a son, Don Carlos, who did not long survive her, and a daughter, Maria Theresa, afterwards the wife of Louis XIV, of France.

Elizabeth inherited some of her father's good qualities; but neither her personal beauty, nor her superior mind and soul, could avail to attach truly and permanently the frivolous heart of her husband. She was a diligent patroness of literary and artistic culture, and especially had delight in Spanish Comedy, which in her time attained its highest point of excellence.



P. Paul. Rubens
Pinxit

D. ELISABETHA BORBONICA PRINCEPS SERENISSIMA
D. PHILIPPI IV. HISPANIARVM INDIARVMQ. REGIS
CONIVGI INCOMPARABILI DEDICABAT

P. Paul. Rubens sculpsit
D. N.

Cum privilegio

A. M. DCCXXII

Charles I, King of England, 1625–1649

Born 19 November 1600, died 30 January 1649

Charles I, the second son of James I, became successor to the throne by the decease of his elder brother. At the time of his accession, 1625, the position of royalty in England had already been made perilous; for James I had by his government excited great discontents among the people, which from year to year had been increased by unwise policy and burdensome taxation.

Charles I retained in office his father's chief minister, the notorious and hated Duke of Buckingham; hence the first cause of the young King's want of popularity. Again, his marriage with the Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria of France, was viewed with displeasure by his Protestant subjects. Unsuccessful and useless warfare, in which the King was urged on by his minister, Buckingham, consumed large sums of money, which Parliament refused to grant, demanding on their side an extension of the people's rights, and some relief from taxation, while they urged that a grave accusation should be preferred against the haughty minister, Buckingham. The King's anger was now aroused, and for the sake of this minister, he was ready to dissolve Parliament. But soon afterwards Buckingham was assassinated by Lieutenant Felton, whose motive for the act was private revenge, and thus the first conflict between the King and the Parliament was ended.

But new dissensions soon arose between them, and were continued until Parliament was, by royal authority, dissolved and its members were dismissed. Then, for eleven years, the King ruled without their aid. To take their place, he established «the Star Chamber» as a High Court of Justice, so that some appearance of judicial authority might be given to his measures; but no change was made for relief of the grievances complained of under this form of arbitrary government. Oppressions of Puritans and Presbyterians impelled many to revolt, and openly to declare themselves republicans. In Scotland, where the King was born and had spent his early years, his subjects first rose in arms against him. Their army of malcontents soon marched into England, and here gained a victory over the royal troops sent to meet them. The King, now in great perplexity, recalled the Parliament, and asked for supplies, to raise forces for the suppression of insurrection; but in doing this, he in fact delivered himself into the hands of his enemies. In the session of 3 November 1640, the Parliament compelled the King to sign a sentence of death on his own true and devoted minister, Strafford, and to abolish, at the same time, the most important prerogative of the Crown — that of summoning and dissolving Parliament. All judgments pronounced by the «Star Chamber» were made null and void; all the special officers of royalty were dismissed, and the King was left destitute of supplies.

In Ireland a mutiny of Catholics against Protestants took place about this time, and served to complete the misfortunes of royalty, as it was generally believed — though the accusation was groundless — that the King himself had excited the Irish to attack and slay the Protestants.

On the 10th of January, 1642, the King with his family, left London, and went to York, where he collected troops, mostly raised by the loyalty of the nobility. Though poorly supplied with means of warfare, an effective royal army was soon gathered and prepared to contend resolutely for the defence of the throne. For more than a year, Charles, supported by this brave army, held in check the troops on the side of Parliament. The latter, fanatical in their zeal against royalty — especially excited by their commanders Fairfax and Cromwell — gained at Naseby a decisive victory over the royalists, and made the King himself their prisoner. At first, it seemed likely that their chief Commander would interfere, and save at least the life of the King; but it was soon made clear that Cromwell cherished for himself an ambition of rising to the highest place in the realm. Accordingly, he so used his commanding influence that, on the 2nd of January 1649, the King was accused of treason against the State; a solemn trial soon took place in Westminster Hall; Charles was placed at the bar, accused as a tyrant, a murderer, and a foe to the nation, and was condemned to death. For a moment, Cromwell seemed irresolute as to carrying the sentence into execution; but his son-in-law, Ireton, urged him to consider, that the will of the fanatic army on their side must be fulfilled. Accordingly, on the 10th of January, 1649, the King, Charles I was publicly beheaded, on a scaffold raised in front of the Palace of Whitehall. He maintained, in his last moments, his calm and self-possessed demeanour. His private life had been spotless. Endowed with high general culture, with goodness of heart, and with purity of morals, he fell, indeed, an innocent sacrifice to the revolutionary storm already raging when he came to the throne. Within the space of some fifty years, there fell on the scaffold, in England, two crowned heads — first Mary Stuart, and next her grandson, Charles I.



SERENISSIMVS ET POTENTISSIMVS PRINCEPS
CAROLVS I.
 DEI GRATIA
 MAGNÆ BRITANNIÆ, FRANCIÆ ET HIBERNIÆ REX.

ILLVSTRISS^{IMO} ET REVERENDISS^{IMO} DOMINO D. CAROLO VANDEN BOSCH EX BRVGENSEI GANDAVENSIVM EPISCOPO,
 Comiti Evergemensi, Domini Sancti Bavonis Toparchæ, Regis Catholici Maiestati a Consilio Status etc. Summo omnium Bonarum, Artium et
 'Elegantiarum æstimatori et Fautori. Iconem hanc, Lub. Alar. Dedicabat, Math. Antonius Curis. Antwerp.

Antonia van Dieck Eques pinxit

Pl. de Leide fecit

Math. Antonius excudit Antwerp

Maximilian I, Duke of Bavaria, after 1597, and Elector 1623—1651

Born 17 April 1573, died 27 September 1651

Maximilian I, Elector of Bavaria, born at Landshut, on the 17th of April, 1573, was richly endowed by nature with such energies as were demanded to make a great ruler in his time. His education, confided to the care of Jesuits, and conducted in strict accordance with Catholicism, served to inspire him with a deep enmity towards Protestantism. In 1587 he went to the University of Ingolstadt, and here enjoyed the friendship of his cousin Ferdinand of Steiermark — a friendship that lasted for life. Already, in 1593, his father, Duke William V had made Maximilian a partner in the government, and in 1597 it was entirely confided to the son. In this position, his first and chief care was to improve the financial circumstances of the land; and his able reformation of the national economy, was speedily crowned with success. His own temperance, industry and love of order, afforded a good example, well deserving the admiration of his subjects. He felt that his duties as a ruler were sacred obligations, and like a father cared for the whole land, and for the lowest of his subjects. In 1617 he made improvements in the courts of justice, and aided the people employed in the salt-mines. At the same time, he patronized liberally the arts and sciences; and he was ever ready to grant, with a generous hand, the aids required by the Church, and for the support of benevolent institutions.

Meanwhile, his religious belief was, that the restoration of Catholicism must be made the chief aim of his life. Accordingly, in 1607, he was the agent appointed by the Emperor, to put in force the ban pronounced upon the free, imperial town of Donauwörth; and in obedience to command, he acted with great strictness, taking possession of the town. As a consequence, he had to confront, in 1608, the forces collected by the Union of Protestants. Against them he led, in 1609, an efficient army, ready to support the policy of the Catholic League. On the other side, Frederick V of the Palatinate, acting for the Union, in 1618 proposed that the imperial crown should be offered to Maximilian. But he firmly rejected it, foreseeing that his acceptance would be offensive to Austria and injurious to the Catholic interest. He therefore, with his utmost energy, assisted in the election of his friend Ferdinand, and when the Bohemian war broke out, sent to his aid a force of 30,000 men. These troops, led by Tilly against Frederick V, gained the brilliant victory of the White Hill, near Prague, on the 8th of November, 1620. Maximilian now received the Electorate taken away from the Palatinate, of which the Upper part was given to him, to pay the costs of war. Tilly, soon afterward, by a victory won near Lutter, reduced Christian IV of Denmark to a position of neutrality. Thus was gained for Maximilian a position so eminent on the Catholic side, that in 1630, acting in concert with other princes — he induced the Emperor to dismiss Wallenstein. Reverses of fortune soon followed. The brave Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden appeared in the field, defeated Tilly near Breitenfeld, 1631, and on the Lech, 1632; and Maximilian lived to see the Swedes enter Munich, on the 17th of May, 1632. The Imperial and Bavarian armies gained a victory at Nördlingen, and other successes were afterwards won by the Bavarians; but the land was again left exposed to Swedish and French aggressions, and suffered under the utmost cruelties of warfare. Peace, long desired, appeared in 1648. Maximilian's dignity as Elector was then confirmed, and he retained possession of the Upper Palatinate.

For the remainder of his life, the veteran ruler devoted his time to pious exercises, and to the work of healing the wounds inflicted on the land by war. His few leisure hours were partly engaged by his care to leave recorded such paternal and Christian admonitions as might serve to guide his son and successor, Ferdinand Maria. In old age, Maximilian was still cheerful; and, without severe suffering, his long and energetic life was closed at Ingolstadt, on the 27th of September, 1651.



ORE hoc augusto DVX MAXIMVS ÆMYLIAN⁹,
BOICÆ scēptra gerens . suspiciendus adest .

SERENISS. AC POTENTISS. PRINCEPS AC DN⁹ DN⁹ MAXIMILIAN⁹
COM. PAL. RHENI VTRIVSQ. BOIARIÆ DVX. etc.

Divinas dotes HEROIS, et incluta facta
Vivax æternat Filia Mnemosynes.

Pet. Hëlburg Agrupp excud.

Oliver Cromwell, Lord-Protector of the United Republic of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Born 25 April 1599, died 3 September 1658

Oliver Cromwell, descended from an old Saxon family, was born at Huntingdon, on the 25th of April, 1599. After a short course of studies at Cambridge, he undertook the management of his paternal estate in his native place, where he lived as a strict puritan, and was made a Justice of the Peace. He lived afterwards at St. Ives (Ely) and in 1640 was returned to the Long Parliament, as member for Cambridge. Having joined himself with the leaders of the opposition, he now devoted his care to the organization of the Parliamentary army; and in September (1640) he was made Captain of the squadron of Cambridge dragoons which had been raised by his own endeavours. By means of strict discipline, and religious enthusiasm, he strengthened the army of the Independents, whom he soon led on to victory, first at Marston Moor, near York, in 1644; then in the decisive battle of Naseby, in 1645.

The King was now compelled to place himself under the protection of the Scots, who soon delivered him back to the English Parliament. He was treated as the prisoner of the Independents, and it was demanded, that he should abandon certain rights, which he held as belonging to royalty. When he refused, his deposition was determined by Cromwell. To gain his object, the victor first expelled from the Lower House those who were opposed to his own resolution — the King's deposition. The remaining members, who were known as the »Rump Parliament«, thereupon instituted, as representative of the Independents, a supreme Court of Justice, by which the King — accused of high treason, in levying war against the people — was tried, found guilty, and condemned to death. He was publicly executed, at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1649.

England was now declared a republic, and the Upper House was abolished. The administration of government was confided to a Council of forty-one members, elected annually; and Cromwell was one of their number. As head commander of the army, he possessed, in fact, supreme power in England, where his government met with no great difficulties. Meanwhile, in Scotland and in Ireland, the people refused to acknowledge his authority, and he hastened thither, to quell their insurrection. To punish the Irish Catholics for their massacre of Protestants, in 1641, he now carried out against them the extreme measures of unsparing warfare; but when it was ended, his utmost efforts were made for the restoration of law and order. In the summer of 1640, he led his army against the Scots, who had recognized Charles II as their King. They were defeated at Dunbar, on the 3rd of September, 1650; and hereupon, Cromwell pressed onward against the Highlanders, who were loyal to the King. Charles II now invaded England; but his followers were utterly defeated at Worcester (3 September 1651) and he himself, with difficulty made his escape into France.

Cromwell, thus everywhere victorious, next asserted more openly his disdain of parliamentary government. On the 20th of April 1653, he dismissed the »Rump Parliament«, as no longer accordant with the national will, and in place of it, appointed the so-called »Barebones Parliament« consisting of men chosen from his own party; but these were soon afterwards dismissed by his sole authority. Next followed a new constitution, devised by Cromwell's chief adherents — mostly military officers — who recognized their head-commander as Lord Protector of the Republic. This new title was formally given to him in Westminster Abbey, on the 16th of December, 1653. Aided by a Council, consisting of military men, he would, henceforth, undertake the executive duties of the government, while the legislative would be confided to a Parliament, convoked in every third year.

The Protector's foreign policy was able and successful, and made his government respected at home and feared abroad. This was seen especially in his naval war against the Dutch (1652—1654) when they had declined the offer of a closer union with England. Their pride was then subdued by the Navigation Act, inflicting a fatal blow on their shipping and mercantile interests, and making England queen of the sea. Soon afterwards Cromwell demanded for England free trade with the Spanish Colonies; and their refusal was made an occasion for the warfare of 1655—1658, by which England gained possession of Jamaica and Dunkirk. On the other hand, Cromwell was always ready to protect the interests of foreign Protestants; he made a friendly alliance with Sweden; and entertained the idea of forming a great Evangelical Union, of which England was to be the head.

Meanwhile, his new constitution for England had still to encounter opposition. In September, 1654, the Parliament was convoked, and some questions of government were raised, but not determined. In less than five months, the members were dismissed; and now England was divided into twelve military circles, or districts. In 1657 a new Parliament voted that the title of King should be given to Cromwell; but he declined it, fearing lest it might excite jealousy among his generals. On the other hand, he accepted the proposal, that he should have the right of appointing his own successor; and he now instituted a new Upper House. In January 1658, the Parliament was reassembled, and opposition was raised against the new Lords. Fourteen days afterwards, the members of the Lower House were once more dismissed. This increased the suspicions and fears already excited by the Protector's later measures, and meanwhile he was disturbed by a dread of assassination, while his own domestic relations were unhappy. Anxiety and depression vexed his later years, and led to a rapid decay of his health. He died on the 3rd of September, 1658 — the anniversary of his victories at Dunbar and Worcester — and was buried, in the royal vault, in Westminster Abbey. In 1661, his remains and those of some near relatives were removed from the Abbey, and taken to a place of public execution.

In the age immediately following his own, Cromwell was mostly regarded as a monster of iniquity; but in our own times his character has been more justly described as that of a genial man, possessed by an arbitrary and self-willed temper. It is now believed that his religious professions were not hypocritical, but rather enthusiastic. He esteemed and patronized art and science, and Milton was his friend. The Universities were indebted to him for his careful attention to their interests. He founded the new University of Durham, and for some time held the office of Rector of Cambridge.



Petrus Lely pinx. 1653

*J. Faber fecit.
1750*

OLIVAR *Rex Ang: Sco: et Hib: PROTECTOR. &c.*
(i Collectione Dom. J. Cavendish)

London. Printed for John Walthall & Rob: M. Thos. at Hogarth's Head, in Fleet Street

34824

Cardinal Mazarin, French Minister of the 17th Century

Born 14 July 1602, died 9 March 1661

Jules Mazarin, the older son of Pietro Mazarini and his wife, Ortensia Buffalini, was born, at Pescina in the Abruzzi, on the 14th of July 1602. His earlier education, at the Jesuits' College in Rome, was ended in his 17th year; but he continued his studies at Alcalá and at Salamanca, where he gained an acquaintance with the Spanish language, and with the traits of the people. After his return to Rome, he entered a papal regiment of infantry, and was engaged in the Veltlin war. In 1632, he was appointed papal Internuntius at the treaty of Turin. For his later promotions he was chiefly indebted to the great statesman, Cardinal Richelieu. Through his influence, Mazarin was appointed Vice-legat at Avignon, in 1634; rather later, as papal Nuntius in Paris; and in 1639, his services were permanently engaged by the French government. After his diplomatic success in a mission to Savoy, he was made a Cardinal (1642) and lastly, Richelieu, (some short time before his decease) advised the King to make Mazarin his first minister. The result was, that, when Richelieu died, his favourite was appointed as his successor. Mazarin was made first minister.

The position thus gained was retained after the decease of Louis XIII (1643). As far as possible, the new minister excluded from the Court all who were not devoted to his service; but in doing this he raised against himself some powerful enemies; especially the leaders of the Fronde party — such men as the Prince Condé, Cardinal Retz and the Duke of Orleans, who made profession of a care for the rights of the Parliament, which Mazarin had disregarded. Hereupon, he was compelled to leave Paris, taking with him the court and the government. Still under parliamentary censure — he returned to Paris, after no long absence, and here sent some of his enemies to prison. The result was that, in 1650, — again compelled to escape from Paris — he went by way of Liege to Cologne and here conducted the affairs of government. In 1652 he ventured to make his appearance again in Paris; but soon afterwards he retreated for the third time. His motive now was to facilitate the reconciliation of the contending parties. Lastly, in 1653, he returned to his post, and resumed his policy of making the monarchy absolute in France. Meanwhile commerce and industry were in a depressed condition, and heavy taxation supplied the means of foreign warfare.

In his foreign policy, Mazarin followed the example left by his great patron and teacher — Richelieu — above all, in the course taken, to make France a gainer by interference in the Thirty Years' War. To humiliate the House of Hapsburg, in Germany and Spain; and to extend the boundary of France as far as the Rhine — these were the aims of Mazarin's foreign policy; and to a considerable extent, they were attained in the Peace of Westphalia, whereby Alsace was gained for France, and not Alsace alone, but also a dominant influence over the West of Germany. Hardly less important was the so-called Peace of the Pyrenees (1659) when France gained Roussillon and a part of Flanders, in exchange for Franche Comté; while for Louis XIV there was opened a prospect of rule over Spain. Mazarin's foreign policy was thus crowned with a success soon followed by his decease. He died of dropsy, at Vincennes, on the 9th of March 1661; leaving his large estates to the husband of his niece, Ortensia Mancini.

As regards his personal character — Mazarin (in contrast with his first patron and guide) was mild in his temper, and merciful in the choice of means for gaining his ends. He was eminent as a patron of art and science; founded the Academy of the Fine Arts; and introduced Italian Opera. His celebrated library was always open to men of learning; and among those who were indebted to his generous patronage were found such men as Descartes, Voiture, Balsac and Peter Corneille.



Philip IV, King of Spain, 1621—1665

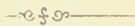
Born 8 April 1605, died 17 September 1665

Philip IV, son of King Philip III of Spain, by his wife Margaret of Austria, was born at Madrid, on the 8th of April, 1605, and acceded to the throne of Spain, on the 21st of March, 1621, when he was only sixteen years old. Incapable of any serious sense of his responsibility, he had once resigned all cares of government to his favourite Count Olivarez, who, for the twenty-three years following, led his royal master, as a child is led in leadings-strings.

Meanwhile financial difficulties were urgent in Spain, and the Minister made domestic affairs worse, by his violent and hazardous measures. In foreign policy, Spain had more and more lost her influence, and he vainly proposed to recover it by means of an alliance with Austria. At home and abroad, his policy failed, especially in Spain. Here he would abolish the special rights and privileges belonging severally to certain districts, and would suddenly make the whole land subject to the same laws and regulations. In consequence of these rash innovations, poverty was increased, and the insurrections that took place in several districts were with difficulty suppressed; while abroad, the fortune of warfare was adverse to Spain.

Already, under Philip III, Spain had taken a part in the 'Thirty Years' War, and after 1635 — had been led into an unhappy war with France. The general aim of Spain's alliance with Austria, was to gain nothing less than universal supremacy for the House of Hapsburg — a plan that had been opposed by Richelieu; at first secretly, then openly, by giving support to the enemies of that alliance. Among them, the Dutch, contending for their own freedom, held the foremost place, and against them, in 1621, warfare (after a twelve years' truce) had been resumed. It was at last decided, more by naval victories than by any engagements between landforces. Spanish commerce was greatly obstructed, the Dutch, by their victory of 1639, confirmed the superior power of their fleet, and by the Peace of Westphalia, Philip was compelled to acknowledge the independence of the Republic. In 1640 extreme pressure of taxation led to a dangerous insurrection in Catalonia, and about the same time occurred the revolt that raised the Duke of Braganza to the throne of Portugal. These misfortunes caused the fall of the absolute Minister, Olivarez; but the change so made was rather personal than systematic; for his successor was his nephew, Don Luis de Haro, who was, however, milder and less disliked than his predecessor. Some good fortune for Spain followed. Massaniello's insurrection in Naples, 1647, was happily suppressed, and after the decease of Richelieu, France was less energetic in prosecuting the war. Accordingly, by the Peace of Westphalia — confirmed by the marriage of Philip's oldest daughter, Theresia, with Louis XIV of France — Spain, by sacrificing Roussillon, Artois, and a few other districts, made France contented. But disasters for Spain were not ended. The war undertaken against the revolted Portuguese was a failure, and the Spanish army suffered an utter defeat at Villaviciosa. King Philip did not long survive this last calamity. He died, sixty years old, at Madrid, on the 17th of September 1665.

It seemed like a stroke of irony when Olivarez gave to the incapable King his surname »the Great«; and popular wit described his greatness as like that of »a hollow place made larger and larger by excavations«. In private life Philip IV, though given to luxury, was not utterly without good qualities. He was affable, and generous to his friends, and showed some traits of a superior mind. He patronized art and science, and wrote (it is said) a tragedy. The Escorial, in its decorations, shows his love of splendour. The flourishing drama, enriched by Lope de Vega and Calderon, and the paintings of Velasquez and Murillo, shed some light over the dismal gloom of his reign.





P. Paul. Rubens
Pinxit

D. PHILIPPO IV. AVSTRIO HISPANIARVM INDIARVMQ. REGI CATHOLICO
SVpra OMNES RETRO PRINCIPES POTENTISSIMO

PIO FELICI PATRI PATRIAE

Hanc suae Maiestatis effigiem a Jo. J. J. incisam deducit
Pacheco Pinxit Antwerpen

D. N. M. D. C. L. V.

A. M. D. C. C. L. V.

Guo. Paul. Pinxit

Henrietta Maria, Queen of England, 1625—1649

Born 25 November 1609, died 10 September 1666

Henrietta Maria was the youngest daughter of Henry IV of France. She was in her sixteenth year when — obeying the wish expressed by her father and by James I of England — she married Charles, heir to the English throne. He first saw her at a ball given in the Louvre, when he was passing incognito through France into Spain, there to show himself as a candidate for betrothal to the Princess Infantine. The marriage awakened the displeasure of the English nation, especially as the papal dispensation was granted on the condition, that the Queen and her offspring must be surrounded only by Catholic attendants and servants. Soon therefore a party was formed in England to oppose the political power ascribed to the Queen, and every royal measure that might seem unfavourable to the Anglican Church was viewed as evidence that the King had been guided by her influence. Her foreign freedom of manners also served to increase English and puritan prejudice against »the French Princess«; and the difficulties of Charles I, in his conflict with Parliament, made her life in England sad and anxious, however true and amiable might be the conduct of her husband. Their family included two sons — Charles II and James II, and a daughter, Henrietta (1644) who afterwards was married to the Duke of Orleans. Impelled by dread of Cromwell's approaching army, the Queen escaped into France. Here the not insignificant sum of 10,000 francs a month was formally given for her support, but she was soon found in distress for want of money. In fact, on account of the large demands made for carrying on warfare against the Fronde, it was found impossible to pay regularly the sums granted for her income. At the death of her husband (1649) she was overwhelmed by sorrow. Louis XIV was induced by Cromwell to expel her two sons from France, and the most tragical moment in her life occurred, when — compelled by want to apply for supplies to her husband's murderer — her prayer was rejected. After this stroke of affliction, she retired into utter solitude and remained in France until the restoration of her son Charles II to the English throne, 1660, when she came with him to England, and here spent a short time. After her return to France, she founded, by the aid of Louis XIV, the convent of Chaillot, and bought for her own residence a mansion in Colombes, where she died, 10 September 1666.

It may be interesting to compare with her portrait this cotemporary description of her person, written by Madame de Motteville: »She has beautiful eyes, an admirable complexion, and a well-shaped nose; and her expression is so amiable that one must like her. But she is very thin, and of low stature, while her mouth — not well shaped in itself — seems too large for her face«. This sketch was made, when the Queen was 35 years old, and her beauty had waned under the influence of persecution and sorrow.

Mary II, Queen of England, 1689—1695

Born 10 May 1662, died 7 January 1695

Mary II, Queen of England, the elder daughter of the Duke of York (afterwards James II) by his first wife Anne Hyde, daughter of the Chancellor, Earl Clarendon, was born in London, 10 May 1662. Though her father was a Catholic, she was educated in accordance with the tenets of the Anglican Church. She was hardly fifteen years old, when Prince William of Orange sued for her hand; and her father (then Duke of York) unwillingly gave consent to the marriage, which however was desired by King Charles II, though the Prince of Orange was strictly a Protestant. In November 1677 the marriage was celebrated, and soon afterwards, Mary followed her husband, who had returned to the Netherlands.

William, by nature reserved, cold and disposed to be silent, seemed to have no liking for any pursuits beyond the affairs of the state — relieved now and then by field-sports — and paid but little attention to his young wife, while she looked up to him with an admiration almost unbounded. Her constant amiability and submission gradually won his confidence. In view of her own future claim to the English throne, she declared her willingness to yield both the royal title and the actual government of England into the hands of her husband, and it was soon made possible that her promise should be fulfilled. In 1688 her father's reactionary measures in Church and State had led to a popular opposition so strong, that Prince William of Orange was invited to take for himself the English Crown. His wife declined to rule alone; and consequently she was invited to rule in concert with her husband, to whom the general execution of royal duties might belong. On the 23rd of February, 1689, she was hailed with much enthusiasm when treading once more on English ground; but her demeanour excited also no little censure when, with evident gaiety of heart, she entered the royal palace — so lately the home of her father, now driven into exile and made homeless. It seemed as if loyalty to her husband had utterly destroyed the natural feelings of a daughter's heart.

English by birth and in her manners, she knew how, by an amiable address, to conciliate those who were repelled by the gloomy and reserved manners of her husband; and she could also — when required — give proof that she had firmness and energy of character. During William's absence — while he was engaged in Ireland, there suppressing a Jacobite revolt against his dynasty — the Queen, entrusted with the regency, gave orders for the arrest and imprisonment of her uncle, Lord Clarendon, and of other leading Jacobites. To guard herself, she employed precautionary measures that were indeed strict, but not cruelly coercive, as her enemies have said. She expelled from all friendly intercourse even her own younger sister, Anne, because she would retain such relations with Marlborough as might be injurious to the State's welfare.

Her husband's less attractive qualities would have been more repulsive had they not been moderated by her presence. For nearly six years she had shared with him the cares of government, when she was suddenly attacked by the small pox — then so prevalent. Immediately, she gave orders that her ladies in attendance and others, who had not had the disease, should leave the Palace; and next she sent a letter to conciliate her sister Anne. After suffering for three days, she died, 7 January 1695, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Her death was for William an overwhelming sorrow. Never before, (it was believed) did he lose self-control, but now his life was in danger, through excessive grief. To honour her memory, he founded now at Greenwich a hospital for invalid seamen, a charity that the Queen had recommended.



James II, King of England, 1685—1688

Born 24 Oct. 1633, died 16 Sept. 1701

James II, second son of Charles I, was born, 24 October 1633 and was educated in France. His first military honours were won in the Thirty Years' War, when he served under Turenne and Condé. After the restoration of his brother, Charles II, he was made Lord High Admiral; but his naval victory over the Dutch in 1665, and his courage shown in the battle on the Southwolt Roads, alike failed to remove the prejudice against him excited by his return to the Catholic Church. The English people feared lest he should also return to the policy of his father, Charles I. The Test Act declaring that none save members of the Anglican Church, should be appointed to hold office, compelled him to resign his post, and the majority of the Whigs in Parliament passed a bill by which he was excluded from succession to the throne; but this act was not confirmed by the Upper House. Accordingly, on the decease of his brother, 1685, he ascended the throne. Popular prejudice against him was still more excited by his inconsiderate zeal for the restoration of Catholicism, and by his reassertion of rights belonging, he said, to the Crown. His declarations of his own authority served, in fact, to aid the popularity of his rival, the Duke of Monmouth — a natural son of Charles II — who now appeared as a claimant for the throne. He was supported by many followers in the West of England, but was defeated at Sedgemoor, 1685, and was soon put to death. While James II had no child, the people, hoping that his decease would make an end of all Catholic claims, tolerated his arbitrary rule; but when his second wife, Maria Beatrice of Este, gave birth to a son, a dread of papal supremacy was again excited, and this was followed by the great movement, known in English history as »the glorious revolution«. William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Netherlands and son-in-law of James II, was invited by many leaders in English politics, to come over and take the throne. He landed, 5 November 1688, in Torbay, and was so well received that James II, with his family made their escape to France. Here several attempts were made in favour of his restoration to the throne; but the end of all was, that he died, an exile, at St. Germain, 16 September, 1701.



Anne, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, 1702—1714

Born 6 Febr. 1664, died 12 Aug. 1714

Anne, Queen of England, was the second daughter of the Duke of York (afterwards James II) by his first wife, Anne Hyde, daughter of the celebrated Lord Clarendon, and was born at Twickenham, near London, 6 February, 1664. Like her elder sister, she was educated in submission to the Anglican Church, and in 1683 married Prince George, brother of King Christian V, of Denmark. Though the favourite daughter of James II, she did not follow his example of allegiance to the Catholic Church. When he lost popular favour by taking that course, and William, Prince of Orange was called to the throne, the Princess Anne favoured William's party; but during his reign she lived quietly as before, under her father's authority, and did not interfere in political affairs.

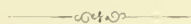
When William died, 19 March 1702, Anne succeeded to the throne; but her personal influence in the government was small. She confided all measures to the care of her Whig advisers, especially to the Duke of Marlborough and his wife, and their party retained power nearly to the close of the reign. Under their government, Scotland and England were (in 1707) more closely united, by representation in one parliament, by equal political rights and with regard to taxation. It was to be ascribed also to the influence of Marlborough, that Anne supported the alliance of Holland and Germany against France, in order to prevent the union of France with Spain, under one ruler. The war, so commenced, was carried on under the able command of Marlborough, whose victories of Oudenarde, Ramillies and Blenheim made England both glorious and formidable in her military power.

With regard to succession to the throne — in case of the Queen's decease, leaving no heir — it was determined (by Parliament) that the Crown should belong to the »Protestant descendants« of the Stuart family. Accordingly, when Anne died, her lawful successor was recognized in Sophia, grand-daughter of James I of England, and widow of the Elector of Hanover. By this law of succession, the claims of James III, half-brother of Queen Anne, were utterly denied, and he was called »the Pretender«. Some attempts were made to maintain his right to the throne; but they were failures. At heart the Queen herself was on his side; but she had in fact no power. England was governed by the contending parties, Whig and Tory.

After the fall of Marlborough, in 1710, the war against France was carried on with less energy, and was closed by the Peace of Utrecht, 11 April, 1713. This War of the Spanish Succession had gained great advantages for England. Her colonies, commerce and political influence were extended; the Revolution of 1688, and the law of a Protestant Succession were generally recognized by the powers of Europe.

Near the close of her reign, the Queen, aided by men of the Tory party, made some efforts in favour of her brother's succession; but in vain. A few weeks before her decease, she was compelled to sign a proclamation against him, and to set a price on his head. She died, 12 August 1714, with her latest breath deploring the unhappy fate of her brother.

Her reign was an important epoch in political history, as in literary culture, though her personal influence could hardly be less. Slightly educated, apathetic, open to flattery, and incapable of independent action — throughout her life she was made subject to more energetic advisers. Hence the strange contrast between her will and her action in her treatment of her brother's claim to the throne. Her private life was blameless, and she was just and kind toward attendants and servants. Her feebleness, or want of character, was not disadvantageous to the developement of England's political power.





*Serenissima et Potentissima Anna D. G. Anglia Scotia Franciae et
Hiberniae Regina &c. Inaugurata XXIII. die Aprilis. 1702.*

a Kneller & R. Kneller del. Angl. F. Guetz. Aur. pinx.

J. Smith fecit

Sold by J. Smith at y^e Lyon & Crown in Russel street Covent-Garden

Louis XIV, King of France, 1643—1715

Born 5 September 1638, died 1 September 1715

Louis XIV, born 5 September, 1638, succeeded his father, Louis XIII, in 1643. As a minor, he remained under the guardianship of his mother, Anna of Austria, who confided to the minister, Mazarin, the charge of all political affairs. On the decease of Mazarin in 1661, Louis assumed the office of a King, and soon gave proof of the energy and firmness by which he made himself absolute, and gained for France a supreme influence over foreign affairs. The King's clear insight was especially shown in his choice of ministers and generals: among them Colbert, as an excellent minister of finance and commerce, Louvois, as minister for war, Turenne and Condé, as commanders of armies.

In 1660 Louis married the Spanish Princess, Maria Theresia, whose renunciation of her own hereditary right he had previously declared to be null and void. Accordingly, in 1667, after the death of his father-in-law, Philip IV of Spain, Louis preferred his own claim to the Spanish Netherlands, and without much difficulty gained possession, in the summer of 1667. In 1668, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, he gained for France twelve fortresses on the Belgian frontier; but — not satisfied with that acquisition — he began, in 1672, a second predatory war against the Netherlands — then utterly unprepared for the attack — and in the course of a few weeks, he had gained possession of the provinces. Soon however, when strengthened under the rule of William III of Orange, and aided by Brandenburg, Germany and Spain, they compelled Louis to renounce his conquest of the Republic, and the Peace of Nimwegen left for him only some parts of Alsace and Franche-Comté. Again, however, he renewed his aggression, and by means of his new Courts of Appeal (or «*Régiment*») held at Metz and other places, the decisions of earlier treaties were revised; so that more territory in the Netherlands and in Alsace was assigned to him; and in the midst of peace, on the last day of September, 1681, he besieged Strasburg. As in political, so in religious affairs, he was despotic; he persecuted the Jansenists (enemies of the Jesuits) and revoked the «*Edict of Nantes*» — thus compelling some hundred thousand of industrious people to emigrate from France.

Against Louis XIV, a treaty of alliance was concluded, in 1686, between Holland, Brandenburg, the German Emperor, Spain, and Sweden. To their alliance he opposed, in 1688, a declaration of war which was soon followed by his third predatory campaign, otherwise called the Palatinate War. After the devastation of the Palatinate districts on the Rhine, the French were again victorious on land in the Netherlands, as on the Rhine; but their attempt to win back for James II the English throne, was utterly frustrated by their naval defeat off Cape Lahogue, on the 29th of May, 1692. Under these circumstances, the conditions of peace, settled by the treaties of Turin and Ryswick, were favourable to Louis, who thereby retained possession of Alsace, with Strasburg. In the Spanish War of Succession his arms were but partly successful.

Charles II of Spain, who died in 1700, left a will by which succession to the throne of Spain belonged to Philip of Anjou, the second grandson of Louis XIV; and by the treaty of Utrecht (1713) Louis retained for his grandson the greater part of his inheritance, while he kept undiminished for himself the lands he had conquered.

He lived long enough to see the power of his monarchy declining, and his death, which took place on the first of September in 1715, might almost be said to be hailed with joy by the French people; for hunger, war and persecutions had thinned the population, and the land was heavily burdened by a monstrous debt of two milliards, incurred in a great measure by the extravagance of his Court. Here the rule of his mistresses — Lavallière, Montespan, Fontanges and Maintenon — had long prevailed, and had exposed to the view of the people an evil example, destructive of public morality, and leading to the ruin of the land.



Paris par Goussier
d'après sa Majesté

Ludovicus Magnus

gravé par V. de Meulen
d'après le tableau original

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, British Commander and Statesman

Born 24 June 1650, died 17 June 1722

John Churchill, son of Glanville Churchill, by his wife, Elizabeth Drake — a relative of the great Admiral Drake — was born at Ashe in Devonshire, 24 June, 1650. When fifteen years old he was employed as a page in the household of the Duke of York, who gained for him the position of an ensign in the Guards. He fought in Africa against the Moors, in 1666; afterward under Turenne in the Netherlands (1672 and later) and in 1678 he married Sarah Jennings, an intimate friend of the Princess Anne, the Duke of York's younger daughter. In 1685, when the Duke, (as James II) acceded to the throne, Churchill was raised to the peerage, with the title of Baron Churchill of Sandridge; but he remained still opposed to the King's reactionary policy. He indeed acted with energy for the suppression of Monmouth's insurrection, but afterwards, with five thousand men, he went over to the side of Prince William of Orange. To reward him, the Prince made him Earl of Marlborough, and gave him a seat in the Privy Council; but did not fully trust his loyalty. As tests of fidelity, his services in Ireland and in the Netherlands appeared satisfactory; but he was not contented with his military promotion and still was suspected of being at heart a Jacobite. In 1692 he was sent to the Tower and was liberated only on account of some legal defects of evidence. In 1697 the King first showed confidence in Marlborough, by appointing him Governor of the young Duke of Gloucester.

When Anne came to the throne (1702) the triumphs of Marlborough soon followed. His wife ruled the Queen, and the Premier (whose son had married Marlborough's daughter) was in fact controlled by the Earl. Greater honours followed the victories won in the War of the Spanish Succession. As Commander in Chief, Marlborough displayed, in diplomacy and strategy, talents of the highest order. To him must be ascribed the fact, that the alliance formed against Louis XIV was maintained until 1711. He captured, in 1702, the fortresses on the middle Maas, and for this service was created Marquis of Blanford and Duke of Marlborough. Then followed his victory over the Bavarians at Donauworth, and that over the French at Blenheim, and the Queen built for him the Castle of Blenheim, near Woodstock. The Emperor gave to the British hero the rank of a German Prince, and created for him the principality of Mindelheim in Upper Suabia, which Marlborough resigned at the Peace of Utrecht. Again his victory won near Ramilies, 1706, made all Brabant subject to the power of the allied forces. Vendôme, the French general, could not maintain his ground against the English Commander. In vain Louis XIV now offered terms of peace. The further victories of Oudenarde and Malplaquet made it inevitable that France must be utterly defeated.

Meanwhile, in England the Duke's enemies had prevailed, and his position was greatly injured when his wife lost the Queen's favour. The absolute command of the war was taken away from him. His enemies, the Tories — now in office — were planning a treaty of peace with Louis XIV, and Marlborough — recalled, and accused of corruption, and misuse of money — was deposed from all his offices, 1 January 1712. Only by the aid of his ally, Prince Eugene was it effected, that the prosecution was stayed by the Queen. The great Commander, suffering under extreme vexation, retired to the continent, and did not come back until 1714, when the Queen died. His offices and dignities were then restored by King George I. Two years later, a fit of apoplexy compelled him to retire finally. After a career of extraordinary energy and success, he died at Windsor Lodge, on the 17th of June, 1722.

Marlborough was an able diplomatist, whose success was, in a great measure, owing to the foresight and address shown in his early life. He was a genial Commander, who never was defeated in a serious engagement, and his strategy — as shown in his co-operation with Prince Eugene — again and again led to victory. But as a man — in politics, private friendship and loyal submission — he was far inferior to his ally.



JOHANNES BARO DE CHURCHILL, DUX ET COMES DE MARLBOROUGH,
MAGNÆ BRITANNIÆ REGINÆ A CONSILIIS SECRETIORIBUS, ORDINIS PERISCCELIDIS EQUES,
REI TORMENTARIÆ ET COPIARUM BRITANNICARUM PREFECTUS GENERALIS, SACRI ROMANI IMPERII PRINCEPS, &c.

*Sic fulges laus magna Ducem quæ cognita virtus
Quæ ornât summa plura meritis
Non talis hos oculos Gallus, quæ missa leguntur
Videret totidæ agmina fura manu
Tertis nunc placidus tandem Te vindice Rheno
Tertis sanguinea decolor spærit aquæ*

*Te Belgæ stupuere, Te stupuere Britanni
Sceptra per Oceanum præcæta referre suum
Quæ sacrata animam debet Germania dextre
Vixque nunc parit gressu quævisse tuum act
In partem Europæ venit quæ pluribus unum
Te quæbus velibet edicta tuta parum*

ADRIANUS RELANDUS
P. 1. 1. 1.

Peter I, the Great, Czar, and afterwards Emperor of Russia

1682—1725

Born 9 June 1672, died 8 February 1725

Peter I, Alexejewitsch, Czar, son of the Czar Alexei, by his second marriage with Natalia Kirilowna, daughter of the Bojar Narischkin — was born on the 9th of June (= 30 May, old style) 1672, at Kolomanskoje-Sfelo, a village near Moscow. In 1682 he was proclaimed Czar; but, his ambitious half-sister Sophia compelled him to yield a share in his dignity to his older but weak-minded brother, Ivan, who died in 1696. Sophia herself ruled, and her selfish designs made her envious of Peter, to whom she gave only a scanty and careless education; but she could not suppress his ardent love of knowledge, and his desire to lead an active life. By his marriage with Eudoxia Feodorowna, Lapuchin, he gained the support of many friends who belonged to the higher class, and now he could bid defiance to Sophia, who had raised against him an insurrection of the body-guards. This was soon suppressed, and she was imprisoned in a convent. Meanwhile Peter had studied military strategy, and now devoted himself to the task of training, with the aid of foreign officers, a Russian army that could meet the requirements of modern, European warfare. At the same time, he collected a fleet, powerful enough to defeat the Turkish navy, and to win access to the sea by the capture of Asof (1696). This fortress was definitively ceded to him by the Porte, in 1700.

In April 1697, Peter set out on his travels with the desire of making himself acquainted with the resources of modern culture. At first he made himself a member in an Embassy passing through Germany on the way to Holland. At Saardam he worked as a common carpenter, in the yard of a ship-builder; then he paid a visit to William III of England, and here received at Oxford a doctor's diploma. He was recalled into Russia by the news of another insurrection of the body-guards. This was suppressed and ultimately the refractory soldiery were dismissed. His wife Eudoxia, who had aided in the plans of the »Old Russian« party, was sent to a Convent.

So began a resolute series of reforms, intended to raise Russia to eminence among the Powers of Europe. A wish to assert his rights in the Baltic led Peter into a war against Charles XII of Sweden, who at Narva (1700) inflicted a defeat on the Russians, but afterwards failed to prevent their capture of Ingermanland, where Peter laid the foundation of his future metropolis (27 May 1703). His success was continued in subsequent warfare against Sweden, especially in his great victory at Poltava (8 July 1709) where the enemy was finally defeated; but on the other hand, the war against the Turks led to disaster. His army — shut up in its position on the Pruth — was saved only by the Huscser Treaty of 1711, which was arranged by the intervention of Catherine, his second wife, while Peter had to surrender Asof, as the price demanded for the Peace. In 1723 he took from Persia the fortified town Derbent, on the Caspian Sea. The Nystader Peace of 1721 secured for him all the Swedish Baltic provinces extending from Livonia as far as Karelien. After this conclusion of peace, the Czar assumed the title of Emperor of all the Russias. Already (in 1720) he had declared himself Head of the Holy Synod. His health had long been failing, when his death was hastened by an accident. While making exertions to rescue the crew of a stranded ship, he caught a cold that soon proved fatal. He died on the 8th of February (= 28 January, old style) 1725.

Peter the Great was an able and genial ruler. His military successes, and his far-reaching reforms, laid the foundation of Russia's greatness. No department of the government was neglected under his rule. He founded schools, and instituted (in 1724) the Academy of Sciences; he raised the character of the national religion; created laws; built towns; made canals; and aided the progress of industry and commerce; he was generous in paying others for their services, and was impartial in the infliction of punishment. But the shades in his character are dark. He allowed himself to be controlled by intemperance, licentious passion, and cruelty. He was ruled so far by his cruel temper, that he condemned to death his own son, Alexei Petrowitsch.



George I, Elector of Hanover (after 1698) and King of England, 1714—1727

Born 28 May 1660, died 22 June 1727

George I Ludwig, King of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, and Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, was the oldest son of Ernst August of Hanover, by his wife, Sophia of the Palatinate, the granddaughter of James I. She had been declared heiress to the British throne, by the Protestant Succession Act of 1701. Hence the claim of her son, George I, born in Hanover, 28 May 1660. As early as 1675, he had gained distinction in the army, and in 1683 he aided in winning a victory over the Turks. In 1705, he obtained by his marriage with Sophia Dorothea, the duchies of Lüneburg-Celle and Lauenburg. The marriage was unhappy, and George made his wife in fact a prisoner. For the remainder of her life after 1694, though she was the mother of his son, George, (afterwards George II of England,) she was confined to the residence assigned to her at Ahlden.

As Elector of Hanover, after 1698, when his father died, George I showed some ruling ability, though his temperament was mostly phlegmatic. On the death of his mother, 1714, her hereditary claim to the English throne descended to him; but he did not leave Hanover until he was called into England by the decease of Queen Anne, which took place later in the same year. As King of England, he showed favour to those most devoted to his cause, and they soon formed a new Ministry of Whigs under the active leadership of Walpole. On the other side, among the Tories dismissed from their offices, a combination was made, to support the Pretender, whom they recognized as James III, but the insurrection of 1715 was easily suppressed, and its adherents suffered severely. To guard against another rising on their side, the King extended the term allowed for the session of Parliament, and strengthened the royal power by means of standing army.

The chief aim of his foreign policy was, to maintain peace in Europe, and so prevent France from interference in support of the Stuarts. For this end, England in 1717 was joined with France and Holland in the Triple Alliance, which in the following year was made Quadruple, when Austria was involved in war with Spain, and the Emperor united his forces with those of the Allies. In the war that followed, England soon found an opportunity of showing the power of her fleet, which, in August 1718, gained a decisive victory over the Spanish fleet. In 1725, Spain entered into an alliance with Austria, for the re-conquest of Gibraltar and Minorca. This design was defeated by the able policy of George, who now formed an alliance with Prussia and France. Always mindful of his native land's prosperity, he interfered in the war against Sweden, called the Northern war, and when it was ended by the Peace of Stockholm, 1719, he gained possession of the duchies Bremen and Verden. He was on a journey to Hanover, when he was prostrated by an apoplectic seizure, and died suddenly, at Osnabrück, 22 June, 1727.

George I could never win the cordial loyalty of the English. He did not even take the pains of learning their language, or of making himself at home with them, as to their manners and morals. On the contrary, his heavy and awkward person and address, his frequent visits to Hanover, the foreign liaisons that disgraced his Court, and his unpleasant relations with the Crown Prince — all tended to excite dislike, and he was sternly censured by many who in politics were not his foes. His constitutional government, and his prudence in foreign policy were fairly estimated. The union of England and Hanover, caused by his accession, lasted until the accession of Victoria, in 1837, and had an important influence in the political affairs of Germany, and indeed in those of Europe.



GEORGIO I. AVGVSTISSIMO MAGNAE BRITANNIAE, FRANCET HIB. REGI, DEFENSORI FIDELI DUXI BRVNSVIC. ET LVNAEB. S. R. I. ARCHITHESAVRARIO ET ELECTORI. Antiquae et Regiae Stirpis, omnes fere Orbis Europaei Domes. Auustas sanguinis et aretissimae necessitudinis vinculo complexae, gloria, in sublimi fastigio posita. sed multo magis propriis Heroicæ Virtutis laudibus incloto. Quam, Maximam Principem Divina Providentia in SOLIO BRITANNICO. EXCELSAE DOMVI HANOVERANAE, omni jure, et Publica, Auctoritate ac Suffragatione debito, collocasset ut GEORGIVS REX RELIGIONEM PURIOREM, LIBERTATEM PVBLICAM, ac SECVRITATEM ORBIS, DEO. Auspice et VIRTVTE Duce, vindicaret atque adeo TEMPORVM FELICITATEM postliminio restitueret: Hoc Pietatis et Demississimi Cultus Monumentum

L. M. Q. D. D. D.

AVGVSTISSIMI NOMINIS EIVS ET REG. MAIESTATIS
Devotissimus Cultor

B. Picartus, Calcographus.

Augustus, surnamed „the Strong“, Elector of Saxony, after 1694, and King of Poland, 1697—1733

Born 12 May 1670, died 1 February 1733

Augustus, »the Strong«, as King of Poland, entitled Augustus II, and as Elector of Saxony, Frederick Augustus I, second son of the Elector John George III of Saxony, and his wife the Danish Princess, Anna Sophia, was born at Dresden, on the 12th of May, 1670. After a careful education, he visited, in 1687—1689, most of the Courts of Europe, where he was generally admired, partly on account of his handsome person and remarkable strength (hence his surname) but also for his intellectual powers and his agreeable, chivalrous address. As Elector of Saxony, he was the successor of his older brother John George IV, after whose decease, 27 April 1694, he made an alliance with Austria, and was appointed Chief Commander of the imperial army in the war against the Turks; but the unfortunate battle at Olasch caused his resignation of the command in 1696. His love of an active career, could not rest contented within the narrow bounds of Saxony, but led him to contend for the throne of Poland, left vacant by the decease of John Sobieski, in 1696. To gain this throne, Augustus entered the Catholic Church, at Baden near Vienna, on the 2nd of June 1697.

Among his opponents the most formidable was the French Prince Conti who, in rivalry with Augustus expended enormous sums of money in his bribery of Polish noblemen. By an expenditure of ten millions of Polish florins, Augustus at last gained his end. He was elected by the Polish diet, 27 June 1697, marched with eight thousand Saxons, into Poland, and was crowned, with great pomp, at Cracow, on the 15th of September. Two years later, he made an alliance with Russia and Denmark, to recover the Polish provinces held by Sweden, and led his Saxon troops into Livonia; though the Polish aristocracy refused to aid him in this expedition, in which he was found no match for the genial warrior, Charles XII. Again and again the invader was defeated, and in 1704 the Polish State Council declared that he was no longer King. Stanislaus Leszczynski, Wojwode of Posen, was now raised to the throne. The Swedes drove the invader back to Saxony, and compelled him, in 1706, to conclude with them the humiliating peace of Altranstädt; to pay largely for their expenditure in the war; and to recognize Stanislaus, as King of Poland; moreover to congratulate him on his accession to the throne. After his deposition, Augustus served as a volunteer under Prince Eugene, in the Netherlands; but new hopes were excited by the defeat of Charles XII at Pultava. The bad fortune of Augustus was suddenly changed. He declared the Altranstädt treaty null and void, marched with a strong army into Poland, deposed Stanislaus, and was again called to take the throne. In the next year, he continued the war against Sweden, which was brought to a close by the death of Charles XII, in 1718. The truce of December 1719 was, ten years afterwards, so extended that a definitive peace was concluded.

After his failure, in trying to make the Poles submit to coercive rule, Augustus was driven to employ other means. The general dislike excited by the presence of his Saxon troops was so great, that they were in fact expelled from Poland in 1717, and the King was left to win popularity by the luxury of his Court. It was renowned as the most splendid Court in Europe, and the King was admired for his extreme love of display. His extravagant expenditure made the capital famous for its treasures of art, but at the same time left the people burdened with a load of poverty and misery. He died at Warsaw, on the 1st of February 1733, and was interred at Cracow. He had married without liking, Christine Eberhardine, of Brandenburg-Kulmbach, mother of the Crown Prince; but had lived mostly separated from his wife. Among his very numerous natural children, the most distinguished was the General, Maurice of Saxony.

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, 1741–1762

Born 29 December 1709, died 5 January 1762

Elizabeth Petrowna, Empress of Russia, born at St. Petersburg on the 29th of December 1709, had been appointed successor to the throne by her mother, Catherine I; but yielding to her natural indolence, she neglected to assert her rightful claim. Consequently, the Dutchess of Courland, Anna Iwanowna, a niece of Peter the Great, ascended the throne in 1730. At her death (1740) she named as her successor Ivan, the son of her niece, the Dutchess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, who now assumed the regency. Soon afterwards, an attempt was made to compel Elizabeth to marry the Duke of Brunswick, Anna's brother-in-law; but the plot was frustrated, chiefly by the interference of L'Estocq, Elizabeth's physician and favourite, who was aided by the French ambassador, the Marquis de la Chetardie. In obedience to their advice, she declined the proposed alliance, and — trusting in the popularity still commanded by the name of her father, Peter the Great — she now raised an insurrection against Ivan and his mother. Both were made prisoners, on the 6th of December, 1741; when the troops hailed Elizabeth as their new Empress. In 1742 she was crowned at Moscow, and then — to confirm her own rule, — she appointed as her successor, her nephew, Prince Karl Peter Ulrich of Holstein-Gottorp.

Her reign was not without military success. The war with Sweden fortunately carried on by Field-Marshal Lacy, and ended in the Peace of Abo (1743) was not disadvantageous to Russia. The opposition of France did not deter Elizabeth from sending an army to aid Maria Theresia in the Austrian war of Succession against Frederick II. The conclusion of peace at Aix la Chapelle (1748) was at least hastened by the aid of Russia. Again the Empress aided Austria in the Seven Years' War against Frederick II. His sarcastic remarks on her Court had been reported to Elizabeth, who consequently had a personal motive for her opposition to his arms. The Russian forces conquered at Grossjägersdorf and at Kunersdorf; they plundered Berlin, and captured Kolberg; but their successes had no decisive effect on the general result of the war. The Empress did not live to see its conclusion. She died at St. Petersburg, on the 5th of January 1762.

Elizabeth was neither destitute of mental gifts; nor incapable of showing, sometimes, that she had a strong will; but habitual indolence was her chief trait. Her gross sensuality led her to choose such favourites as Schuvaloff, Woronzow, and Bestushew. The last, though notoriously corrupt, was made High Chancellor. The Empress, meanwhile, — generally commended for her »mild« rule — gained popularity by some of her measures; especially by the removal of interior customs in great Russia, and of the general toll levied in Lesser Russia. Elizabeth had some taste for literature and the fine arts, as was shown by her founding the University of Moscow, and the Academy of the Fine Arts at St. Petersburg.



Louis XV, King of France, 1715—1774

Born 15 February 1710, died 10 May 1774

Louis XV, great grandson of Louis XIV, succeeded to the throne when only five years old. He had attained his majority, when he confided the government of France first to the Duke of Bourbon, and then to Cardinal Fleury. In 1725 Louis XV married the daughter of Stanislaus Leszcynski, of Poland, and was by this alliance involved in the Polish war of succession, by which he gained expectancy of Lorraine. His interference in the Austrian war of succession was a failure, and extremely costly to France. By the strategic error of Marshal Soubise, in the Seven Years' War, the military character of France was exposed to the ridicule of Europe, and her political influence was utterly forfeited.

While the policy of Louis XV thus destroyed the importance of France among the great powers of Europe, his gross extravagance ruined the financial position of the country, and as by design, led on surely to the Revolution. His own expenditure, and his useless wars were to be paid for by his arbitrary taxation, chiefly of the lower classes, and, with a senseless and brutal tyranny, he suppressed in 1771, the resistance of Parliament which he reduced to the rank of Law Court, destitute of political influence. At his death, 10 May 1774, he left France burdened by a debt of four thousand millions of livres.



Ludovicus Victor et Pacator.

Maria Theresia, Roman Empress, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, 1740—1780

Born 13 May 1717, died 29 November 1780

Maria Theresia, oldest daughter of Charles VI, was born on the 13th of May 1717. In 1736 she was married to Francis Stephen of Loraine, Arch-duke of Tuscany, who had been educated at the imperial court. On the death of her father, 1740, she acceded to the throne, by virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction, by which her right of succession had been determined. Her husband was appointed by her to be Co-Regent, though she gave to him no considerable share in the government. As Francis I, he was crowned Roman-German Emperor, in 1745.

In the beginning of her reign, the young Empress found herself opposed by a mighty coalition. A War of Succession was begun by Elector Charles Albert of Bavaria, who claimed as his own right succession to the throne of Austria. Soon followed the first and the second Silesian War. The resources of Austria were nearly exhausted and financial affairs were perplexing, while the army was reduced to less than a hundred thousand men. In this dangerous position of affairs, the Empress did not lose her courage. Her own brave heart was her chief support against the ruin threatening her realm, and enabled her to confront boldly even her most formidable enemy — Frederick II, the young King of Prussia; but so great was the success of his arms, that she was compelled to cede to Prussia the greatest part of Silesia, when the war was ended by the Peace of Dresden, concluded on the 25th of December, 1745. On the other side, her hereditary succession to the monarchy of Austria was established by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 18th of October 1748.

Then followed eight years of peace, well employed by Maria Theresia in the improvement of Austria's domestic circumstances. Abuses in the government were removed; a strong army was organized, and reforms took place in finance, as in the administration of justice. Still, amid all her cares for domestic reforms, the Empress could not forget her loss of Austria. Her most earnest wish, long secretly cherished, was to see an alliance of Austria with France, Russia, Sweden, and Saxony — all united to oppose the growing power of Prussia; and in this great plan she was aided by the able policy of her Chancellor, Kaunitz, who acted as her Minister of Foreign Affairs. But Frederick II, by his invasion of Saxony, in 1756, forestalled the action of the Allies (who had intended to begin their attack in 1757) and so began the Seven Year's War, that after severe contests was ended by the Peace of Hubertusburg (15 February 1763) when the several parties in the contest were confirmed in possession of the territories they had gained before the war was begun.

After the decease of her husband (1765) the Empress made her son Co-Regent; but confided to his independent control only military affairs. Unwillingly she took part in the first partition of Poland; and in the Bavarian war of succession she was guided more by her son's advice than by her own will. In the Peace of Teschen (13 May, 1779) she was content to take only the Inn-quarter. Soon after this conclusion of peace she died, on the 29th of November 1780, leaving to her son the Austrian monarchy raised to an eminent position, and defended by an army of 280,000 men.

Maria Theresia possessed a noble mind and a manly fortitude of soul. Left by her father in ignorance of all affairs of state, she was able to meet ably the difficulties of her early reign. To improve domestic government; and to raise the power of the State in its foreign relations — these were her chief aims. She founded schools and orphan-houses; abolished trial by means of torture, and also serfdom in the German provinces of the monarchy; and encouraged agriculture, industry and commerce, while she was always careful to increase the strength of her army. Endowed with the virtues of a truly feminine character, uniting pure morality with personal beauty, she was at once a beneficent ruler, and a kind mother to her own family.



MARIA
HUNGARIÆ
AVGVSTÆ
ORBIS
NOSTRI TEMPORIS



TERESA
BOHEMIÆ, REGINÆ,
CONIVGI
DELICIIIS
PALLADI

MARTIN DE MERTENS PINXIT
PHIL. ANDR. KILIAN SVMPITIBVS SOCIETATIS SVCLPESIT

D D D
OMNIVM HVMISSIMA
DEVOTISSIMA
AA LI SOCIETAS

Frederick II, King of Prussia, 1740—1786

Born 24 January 1712, died 17 August 1786

Frederick the Great has been also surnamed 'the Only One', and with right; for the century in which he lived bears the impress of his character, and is called 'the age of Frederick, the Great'. The motto prefixed (by the poet Maltitz) to a biography of the King, is hardly too bold:

Said Fate, 'great King, no son will bear
Thy name, or in thy glory share,
But thou, as all thine own, shalt claim
The century that bears thy name'.

As the Crown Prince, and under the stern and even cruel discipline of his father — Frederick William I of Prussia, a man of iron will — Frederick had much to endure. His mother was the daughter of Sophia Dorothea, of Celle, (after separation from her husband known as the Duchess of Ahlden) who on the maternal side belonged to a French family. To this admixture of blood might be ascribed some traits in the Prince's character — especially his love of music and poetry — and these were developed by the French governess, Madame de Roucoules, to whose care his training in boyhood was confided. To her, no doubt, the boy was partly indebted for the culture and refinement shown in later years.

Meanwhile the Prince had awakened the displeasure of his father, who feared lest his son should be nothing better than a weak amateur; should never be a soldier. An erroneous foreboding — the greatest General of his century no soldier!

At last, the father's harsh conduct drove the son to resolve, that he would make his escape to England; and now his father arrested him as guilty of desertion and high treason. All the Ambassadors, with the Kings of Poland and Sweden — then present at the Court of Prussia — pleaded in behalf of the Prince, and partly succeeded in quelling the King's fury. He did not put the Prince to death, as had been intended, but made him a prisoner at Küstrin, and here compelled him to witness the execution of his friend, Lieutenant Katte, who had aided him in planning the escape to England. This cruelty had a terrible effect on the Prince; his heart seemed petrified. The father, however, was not fully reconciled, until Frederick had consented to marry the Princess Elizabeth Christine of Brunswick-Bevern, for whom he had no affection. He subsequently evinced the highest esteem and respect in his conduct toward his wife; and with her he spent his happiest youthful days, when they lived together at Rheinsberg. Here he had leisure for music and poetry, as his recreations; but his earnest studies were history and military strategy, the latter especially, as shown in the campaigns of the great Condé.

On the 31st of May, 1740, Frederick acceded to the throne, with his father's blessing on his head. The late King had felt sure, that his successor's career would be glorious, and his prediction was soon fulfilled. In the first year of his reign, Frederick, by his conquest of Silesia, made himself the hero of his century. A few years later, he was victorious in the Second Silesian War; and on the 24th of August 1756, the celebrated Seven Years' War began. In the sixteen chief battles that followed, he was victorious at Lowositz, Prague, Rossbach, Leuthen, Krefeld, Zorndorf, Minden, Liegnitz and Torgau.

During his years of peace, Frederick expended his utmost efforts for the good government and prosperity of the realm; while he aided in the spread of a higher culture of the arts and sciences. He built in Berlin an Opera House, and invited from Paris scholars and men distinguished in literature. He was himself the author of several works having an historical importance, but they were written in French; for he neglected German literature, and despised his own native language of. Under the influence of his friend, Voltaire, he was taught to regard religion with indifference or contempt; though he respected morality, and was careful in his own moral conduct. He contracted no liaisons. The anecdotes told of his relations with the danseuse, Barbarina Campanini, are mostly false. He indeed admired her person and her skill in dancing; but he was subject to only one passion — ambition. True; he was capable of friendship, and could entertain toward certain ladies the affection which Cicero has finely described as *amor amicitiae*. This, we are assured, was the only bond by which he was, for a long time, attached to the virtuous, fair and accomplished lady, Von Wreech.

After, suffering long from dropsy and feebleness of body, the King died at Sanssouci, on the 17th of August, 1786, leaving to his successor an extended realm, and full treasury, a well-disciplined army, and a people on the whole to be described as educated, industrious and prosperous. The light shed by the hero's career is still shining to guide us.



FREDERIC II, Roi de PRUSSE.

*L'abbé n'est pas parvenu à son but. Mgr de Paris l'a empêché de venir les Papes
pour la messe du 10 et le 11, qu'il ne devait pas manquer.*

Louis XVI, King of France, 1774—1793

Born 23 August 1754; died 21 January 1793

Louis XVI, August, King of France, the third son of the Dauphin Louis, by his marriage with Maria Josepha of Saxony, was born at Versailles, on the 23rd of August 1754. In his earlier years he was known as the Duke of Berri; but after the death of his older brother, and that of his father (in 1765) he succeeded to the title of Dauphin. On the 10th of May, 1770 he married the Princess Marie Antoinette of Austria who, though distinguished by her personal beauty, never gained popular favour in France. The King was amiable and benevolent; but his narrow education had not developed the powers of his mind, which was naturally deficient in energy.

His want of self-confidence made him dread his accession to the throne, which took place at the death of his grandfather, Louis XV, on the 10th of May 1774. Meanwhile, the people gladly hailed their new King.

Immorality, extravagant expenditure, and an inglorious policy, had disgraced the reign of Louis XV, and had caused an ever-increasing deficit in the financial resources of France. The people were complaining under a load of taxes, mostly extorted from the lower classes, the higher classes, possessing two thirds of the land, were comparatively exempt from taxation. To restore contentment, the first measure urgently demanded, was a fairly proportionate distribution of the public burdens, and the King was sincerely desirous of making this reform; but contending parties surrounded him, and their several arguments served to perplex his irresolute mind, whenever practical measures were submitted for his decision on their merits. He made, however, soon after his accession, an important step toward reform, when he appointed Turgot as Minister of Finance. The measures proposed by this honest minister were chiefly decentralization of the government, abolition of certain heavy taxes, and a reduction of the deficit; but before they could be carried into effect, Turgot was expelled from office, in 1776. His second successor, the banker Necker, had recourse to raising new loans, in order to reimburse France for her expenditure in aid of the North American war of liberation. At a later time, Necker proposed a reduction in expenditure, and especially exposed the extravagance of the Court. The consequence was his dismissal from office, in 1781. Then followed the financial experiments of Calonne and De Briennes, after which Louis was compelled to recall Necker, as Minister of Finance (1780) and moreover to convoke the *Tiers États*, who had not been assembled since the year 1614. They now came together, and held a parliament at Versailles, on the 5th of May 1789. In the next month, they declared themselves as representatives of the *Tiers États*, a National Assembly convened to consult on the plan of a new constitution. The King was now compelled to promise that a whole series of liberal reforms should soon follow. But a concentration of troops in Paris, and the dismissal of Necker from office led to an insurrection (on the 13th of July) and the Bastille was destroyed. Again the King was driven to make concessions to the demands of the people; but insurrection broke out again on the 5th of October, when the Royal Family and the National Assembly were removed from Versailles to Paris. Here the measures proposed in the Assembly became more and more radical and threatening, until the King was alarmed. In the night of 20—21 June, 1791 he made an attempt to escape from Paris and gain shelter in a fortified place on the western frontier; but in the course of his journey he was recognized by a postmaster named Drouet, and after detention at Varennes, was brought back to Paris. Here, on the 14th of September, he with tears confirmed by an oath his promise of a new constitution. This concession failed, however, to save him from further conflict. In the Legislative Assembly convened on the 1st of October, it was proposed to punish priests who refused to take the common oath of citizens. On this occasion, the King's veto caused great offence, and after his dismissal of the Girondist Ministry, his deposition was planned by the Jacobins. On the 10th of August, 1792, the Tuileries were stormed, and Louis fled for protection into the National Assembly. Here it was resolved, that the royal power should be suspended, and the King was led, as a prisoner, into the Temple. He was next formally accused as a traitor and, despite his dignified defence, was condemned to death by a majority of the National Convention, on the 17th of January 1793. On his way to the scaffold, he maintained his calm and resolute demeanour, and his last words were these: — "Frenchmen, I die innocent; I pray that my blood may not be upon France."

The unhappy King fell as a victim to the sins of his forefathers. His own fault was, that he was not born to be an energetic ruler. Slow in his mental powers, and deficient in power of will, he was not equal to the gigantic work of raising France out of its depth of ruin. His benevolent disposition, good intentions, and purity of morals, amid the corruption of his Court, deserved a better fate.



Maria Antoinette, Wife of Louis XVI, Queen of France, 1774—1792

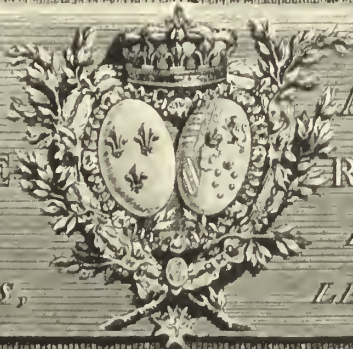
Born 2 November 1755, died 16 October 1793

Maria Antoinette, daughter of the Emperor Francis I and his wife Maria Theresia, was born on the 2nd of November, 1755. When hardly fifteen years old, she was married to the Dauphin of France, who acceded to the throne as Louis XVI. Her beauty and intelligence soon won his esteem and affection, but failed to make her popular in France, where scandals were spread by those who sought her ruin. The fact that, by birth, she was an Austrian, excited suspicions against her; and her artless freedom of manners was viewed as a breach of Court-etiquette. For that, indeed, she had little respect; since she knew that too often it served as a veil to hide vice. However excited, these early attacks on the Queen's character, served to hasten the fall of the throne.

Meanwhile, with a courage that never failed, she acted as the support of her husband, while the revolutionary movement was increasing in violence; and her firmness commanded even the respect of her enemies. After the storming of the Tuileries, the royal family sought refuge in the National Assembly, and were led as prisoners into the Temple, where most barbarous means of increasing their sufferings were put in force. The Queen was separated from her husband. Her food and even the water allowed for her use were closely stinted, and everything like comfort was denied. At last she was led out to her trial, where she had to meet accusations of most incredible offences, and all defence was useless. She was condemned to death, but still maintained her courage and dignity, when taken to the scaffold. Her execution took place on the 16th of October 1793.



MARIE
 ARCH.^{SE} D'AUTRICHE
 NÉE A VIENNE LE
 MARIÉE A VERSAILLES,



ANTOINETTE
 REINE DE FRANCE,
 III NOVEMBRE MDCCLIV.
 LE XVI MAI, M. DCCCLXX.

George Washington, First President of the United States

Born 22 February 1732, died 14 December 1799

George Washington was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, in 1732. At the age of twelve he lost his father, and his youth was largely spent at his elder brother's estate of Mount Vernon, on the Potomac. At one time he had completed arrangements for entering the British naval service, and had his clothes packed and sent on board a man-of-war, when at the last moment he gave up the project because of his mother's objections.

The only time he was ever at sea was when he made a voyage to Barbadoes, at the age of nineteen, with his brother Lawrence. At the age of sixteen he entered the service of Lord Fairfax as a surveyor.

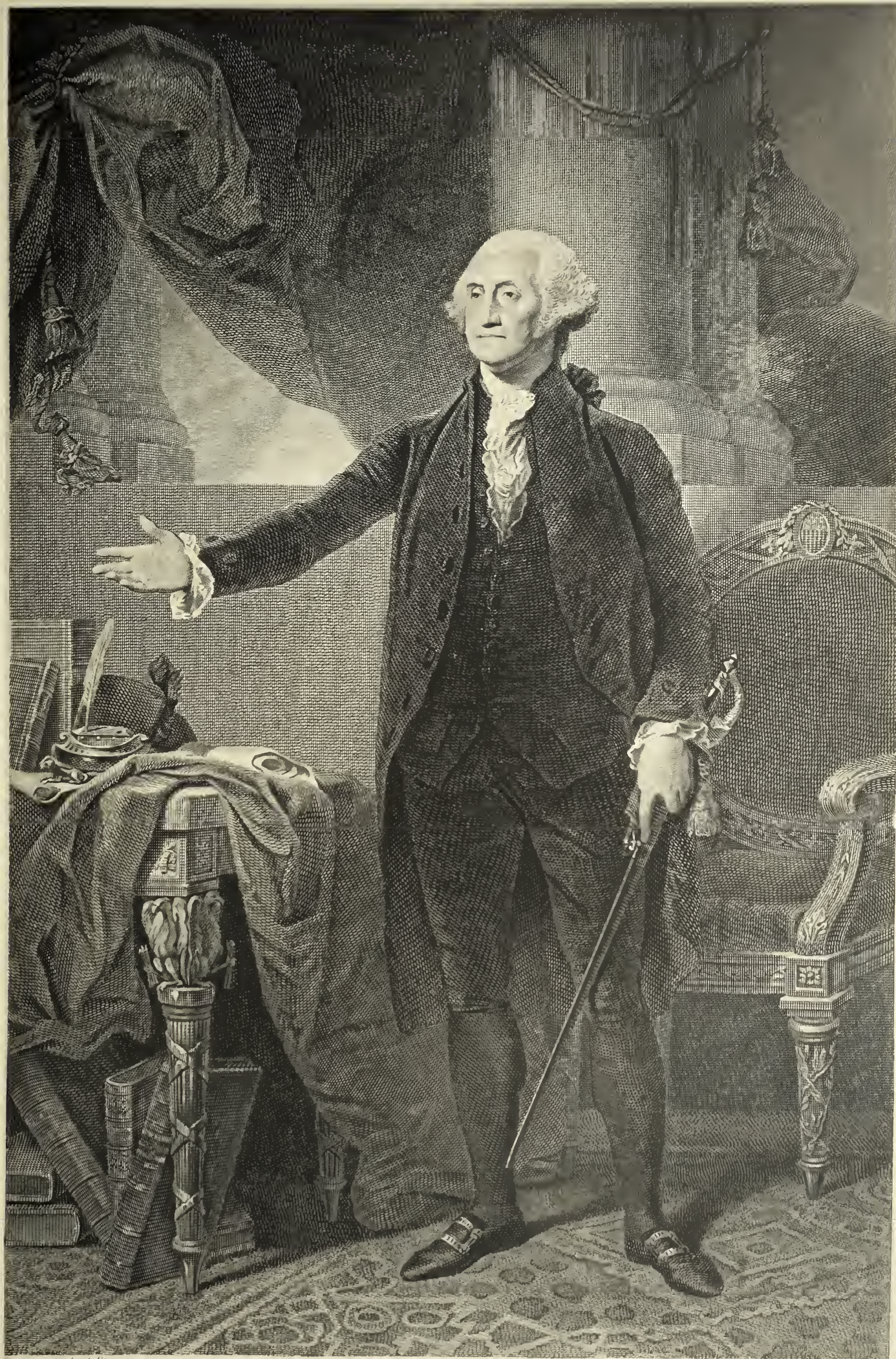
His Lordship owned large estates in the great Virginia valley, the boundaries of which were but vaguely defined, and the task of surveying them involved camping out for weeks in the wilderness and using the axe and the rifle as well as the compass and chain. In 1752, with a single companion, Washington was sent by the governor of Virginia to carry an important letter to the French commander on the Ohio.

The journey occupied nearly three months, in winter, and was full of perils from cold, from half-frozen rivers, and from treacherous savages. Two or three years of such experience made an excellent beginning for that education in courage, endurance, cool judgment, and hardy self-reliance, which fitted him for the task of carrying through a sevenyears' war and establishing the young republic.

In 1754 he commanded a regiment of the troops sent against the French at Fort Duquesne (now Pittsburgh Pa.) and won distinction by his defence of Fort Necessity, though he was finally compelled to capitulate. The next year, as a volunteer aid to General Braddock, he joined the new expedition that marched over the same ground. On the 9th of July Braddock's force fell into an ambush and was disastrously defeated. Washington was the only officer that escaped unhurt, and he had four bullet-holes in his coat. It is clear that if Braddock, who knew nothing of frontier fighting, had listened to his advice, he might easily have been victorious.

After the cessation of hostilities, Washington retired to Mount Vernon, which he had inherited on the death of his brother, and in 1759 he married Mrs. Martha Custis, a wealthy widow. He was several times a member of the Virginia Assembly, and was elected to a seat in the first Continental Congress. He warmly espoused the cause of the colonies against the mother country, and on the outbreak of war in 1775 he was chosen (June 14) commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. He hastened to Cambridge, Mass. and there, under the now historic elm, assumed the command. His history for the next seven years is substantially the history of the war of Independence. He besieged Boston, held by a force of 10,000 men, bringing heavy guns from old Fort Ticonderoga, 200 miles, on sleds, and compelled the evacuation of the city in March 1776. He then marched his army to New York; but in August he was defeated by Sir Henry Clinton in the battle of Long Island, and the subsequent action at White Plains seemed to render the Colonial cause desperate. On Christmas night, in a storm, he crossed the Delaware with his little army, attacked the enemy at Trenton, defeated them, and took a thousand prisoners, losing but nine of his men. A week later he defeated Cornwallis at Princetown. But in September 1777, a fresh force from New York, under Howe, defeated Washington at the Brandywine, and he was defeated again in October at Germantown. The ensuing winter was spent by the Colonial troops at Valley Forge, amid great suffering from cold and privation, and it required his utmost exertions to keep the army together. In the summer of 1778 the British evacuated Philadelphia, and Washington, following them toward New York, fought an indecisive battle at Monmouth. The next important movement by the Commander-in-chief culminated in the siege of Yorktown by the combined American and French forces, where Cornwallis surrendered in October 1781. This practically ended the war, though the enemy did not leave the country till after the treaty of peace was signed in 1783. Washington then resigned his commission, refusing all pay for his services, and retired to his home. He planned the James River and Potomac canals, and with the shares voted to him by the State, he endowed a college at Lexington. In 1787 he was a member of the convention that framed the constitution of the United States; and under that constitution he was elected President and was inaugurated in New York April 30th 1789. He was reelected in 1792, but declined a third term, and on March 4th 1797 retired once more to Mount Vernon, where he died from the effects of exposure in a snow-storm, Dec. 14th 1799.

Washington had a robust form, over six feet high, with a large head, brown hair, and blue eyes. He seldom spoke in deliberative assemblies, but always commanded attention and exercised a powerful influence. He was a skillful manager of his own estates, exact and methodical in all his ways. He had no children of his own, but adopted several nephews and nieces, and was very happy in his domestic relations. His numerous slaves were liberated by his will.



Painted by Gilbert Stuart 1797.

Engraved by James Heath, London, at Engraving to his Majesty and to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales from the original Picture in the Collection of the Marquis of Lansdowne

GENERAL WASHINGTON.

Published 1867-68. In the British Museum, by Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co. 25, Abchurch Lane, London.

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Horatio, Viscount Nelson, English Admiral

Born 29 September 1758, died 21 October 1805

Horatio, Viscount Nelson was born, 29 September 1758, at Burnham-Thorpe, in the County of Norfolk, of which his father, Edmund Nelson, was the rector. When only twelve years old, he was led by his own choice into enter the naval service, in a ship of the line commanded by his maternal uncle, Captain Suckling. The boy, in spite of early hardships, soon gave proof of courage and endurance that gained for him the well-deserved approbation of his superiors. In 1777 he was made Lieutenant and, two years later, Post Captain. The English expedition against the Spanish possessions in 1780 gave him an opportunity to win distinction, especially in Honduras Bay, and in 1784 he was appointed Commander of the Frigate *Boreas*, on a cruise off the Windward Islands, where his energetic services were not a little favourable to England's commercial interests. While in the West Indies, he married, (in 1787,) and afterwards returned to England, where he lived with his wife in quiet retirement for some years.

In 1793 the outbreak of war against France called him back to service, and as Commander of the *Agamemnon*, he was sent to the Mediterranean. Here he took a leading part in the capture of Bastia, and in the victory won at Calvi, in Corsica, where his right eye was lost in the action. To Nelson in great part belonged the victory won off Cape St. Vincent, in February, 1797. He then captured three Spanish ships of the line, and made the enemy's Admiral a prisoner. As a reward, he was made Vice Admiral. In an attempt made to capture, near Santa Cruz, a Spanish fleet — supposed to convey much treasure in silver — he lost his right arm. This was not made a plea for refusal to accept the command of the fleet sent to watch the harbour of Toulon, where Napoleon was making ready his fleet for the expedition against Egypt. Aided by a storm, this fleet escaped from the harbour, unnoticed by Nelson. But he followed and found it at anchor near Abukir, where his victory, soon following, utterly destroyed the naval power of the enemy. Nelson was now created Baron of the Nile and of Burnham-Thorpe, and received a pension of £ 2000. The King of Naples, who now declared war against France, made Nelson Duke of Brenta. French troops soon appeared in Naples, whence Nelson was compelled to escape with the court to Sicily; but in July 1799, he brought the King back to Naples. Meanwhile, Lady Hamilton, wife of the English ambassador there, had enslaved the hero, so far that he stooped to obey her private enmity, and condemned to death a prince over whom he had no just authority. This, the one great blot on his character, led to his recall to England in 1800.

As the hero of Abukir, he was received with the highest enthusiasm. In 1801, as Vice Admiral, he was engaged in the great expedition against the alliance of the Northern Powers, and gained a victory over the Danes at Copenhagen. On his return, he was promoted in rank as Viscount Nelson; and in the same year (1801) he made an unsuccessful attack on the French fleet lying off Boulogne. The Peace of Amiens gave him rest for a time, but when the war was renewed, he was again sent to the Mediterranean. Here, on the 21st of October, 1805, he encountered a united French and Spanish squadron in numbers superior to his own fleet. In the terrible fight that followed, Nelson broke through the enemy's centre, and victory was already his own when he fell, hit by a musket ball, coming from the mizzen-top of a French ship. His remains were brought to London, and interred in St. Paul's.

Nelson was one of the greatest English Admirals in modern times. Endowed with admirable firmness of will and most heroic courage, he was also exemplary in his noble patriotism, and in his pious submission to God's will. The enthusiasm that filled his soul spread itself among his fellow-countrymen, who have always shown a warm sympathy in their preservation of his memory.



J. J. Abbott sculp.

W. P. Pinxton del.

Sir Thomas Mordaunt
REAR ADMIRAL



Volontaire de B.
OF THE BLUE

William Pitt, the Younger, English Statesman

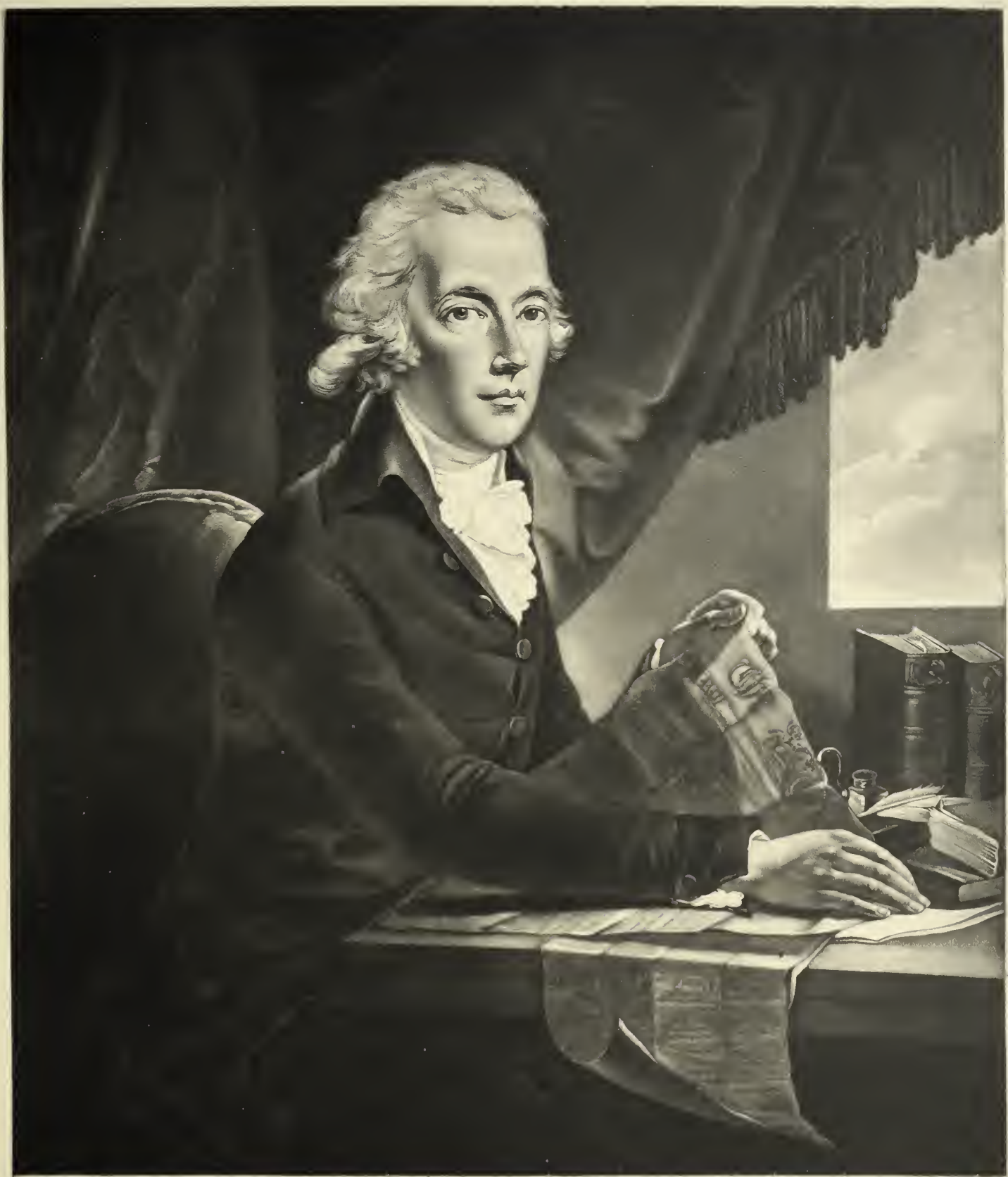
Born 28 May 1759, died 23 January 1806

William Pitt, the Younger, second son of William Pitt, the Older, (Earl of Chatham,) and his wife Hester (née Grenville) was born at Hayes in Kent, 28 May, 1759. His father educated him for the diplomatic career in which he gained such high distinction. In 1773 he entered the University of Cambridge, where he earnestly studied the ancient classics, and paid also much attention to mathematics. In 1778 the decease of his father, who left behind him but a small property, compelled him to provide for himself, and in 1780 he went to London, where he intended to practice as an attorney.

In January 1781 he gained — through the aid of the Duke of Rutland — a seat for Appleby, at a time when English politics were involved in difficulties, at home and abroad. True to the example set by his father, he joined at first the ranks of the Whig opposition to North's ministry, and by his first speech, on the 26th of February, attracted general notice in the House of Commons. After the fall of the Tory ministry, 1782, he prudently declined to accept the offer of a subordinate place, and soon by his proposals of liberal measures — such as Parliamentary reform — he increased so much his popularity, that in July, 1782, he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Ministry of Shelburne. Some negotiations with Fox, respecting his taking a place in the new Cabinet, followed, but were failures, and henceforth the two great orators of their time were bitter foes in politics. The coalition Fox-North prevailed over Pitt's policy in 1783, but only for a short time. When Fox introduced his »India Bill«, for transfer to the State of rights belonging hitherto to the East India Company, the measure was opposed by Pitt, with his utmost energy. It was his strong opposition that led King George III to interfere personally in the Upper House, and cause the overthrow of the bill, which was followed by his dismissal of the Coalition-Ministry. Pitt, then made Premier, gained a majority in the Lower House, and brought in a new India Bill, which was soon passed. This measure made the Company subject to the control of a Commission appointed by the King, and intended to secure a reform in finance, and a restoration of the public credit.

As at home, so in his foreign policy, Pitt was an able leader. To reimburse England, in some measure, for her losses in the North American war, he endeavoured to make advantageous treaties of commerce, and to extend as far as he could her naval power. But the movement excited by the French Revolution, led him to join the aristocracy, in opposition to the spread of democratic ideas in Great Britain. Here he would, in such a dangerous crisis, rest content with the rights and liberties already enjoyed. He therefore joined in the war against France, and made himself the very soul of all undertakings against the Republic. From this policy he refused to swerve, however great his difficulties at home, as when the Bank, in 1797, stopped payment in gold. In 1800, to meet the discontent of Ireland, he brought about its complete union with England, partly by means that were denounced as corrupt or coercive. Meanwhile the heavy sacrifices made by England, and her loss of allies in the war against France, had excited a general cry for peace, and Pitt resigned office in 1801. In the next year, the Addington ministry concluded with Napoleon the Peace of Amiens. But in 1803 Buonapart's policy gave rise to a new war, and Pitt — now supported by Fox — found it easy to overthrow Addington and to make himself again leader of the government. In 1804, he collected troops, and made other great preparations for warfare; then formed in 1805 another coalition against France. His extraordinary labour and weight of care had now utterly consumed his physical strength; he died, 23 January, 1806, and his last breath expired in a prayer for the welfare of England. His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, and Parliament granted a large sum for the payment of his debts.

It is an honour to his memory, that he did not make a fortune by his official career. Cold and proud as he seemed in public life, he was cheerful and amiable in the society of his friends. He was ruled only by one passion — ambition. His public speeches, marked by clearness in plan and power of argument, exercised often an irresistible power over those who listened to them.



Napoleon I, Emperor of the French, 1804–1814

Born 15 August 1769, died 5 May 1821

Napoleon I, second son of the Patrician, Carlo Bonaparte and his wife, Maria Letitia Ramolino, was born at Ajaccio in Corsica, on the 15th of August 1769, and was educated in the military schools of Brienne and Paris. In the outbreak of the French Revolution, he offered his services to the Republic, at a time when political disturbances served to aid the development of his ambition. His early career was, therefore, singularly rapid, and success made him more and more daring in the measures he employed to gain his ends.

The capture of Toulon (19 December 1793) was the first of a long series of triumphs, in which the military genius of Napoleon was displayed. In 1796 he married Josephine, the widow of Viscount Beauharnais, who had fallen a victim to the Revolution. In the same year, Napoleon received from General Barras, an appointment as Commander in Chief of the Italian Army; and in the course of 1796–1797, the whole of Upper Italy was made subject to his arms. Further successes were won by the young commander, in 1798, when he led an expedition to Egypt and Syria. His return to France was soon followed by his coup d'état of the 18th Brumaire (i. e. 9th of November, 1799, by which the rule of the Directory was ended; and in 1800 he was made First Consul for the next ten years. In the same year, he led his army over the great St. Bernhard, and defeated the Austrians at Marengo; in 1801, at the Peace of Luneville, both Tuscany and the left bank of the Rhine were ceded to France; in 1802 Napoleon was made First Consul for life; and on the 18th of May, 1804, he was proclaimed as hereditary Emperor of the French. Then followed (1805) his great victory over the Russians and Austrians united against him in the »battle of the three Emperors«, at Austerlitz.

Napoleon, who had made himself almost absolute in Europe, now founded the kingdoms of Holland, Naples, and Westphalia, over which his brothers were made Kings; and as Protector of the Rheinbund, instituted in 1806, he secured for himself a ruling influence in most of the German States. Still he was not contented, but pressed on and on until, by his victory at Jena (1806) and that at Friedland (1807) he compelled Prussia to cede all the lands lying between the Rhine and the Elbe. In 1808 his absolute authority was asserted in expelling the House of Bourbon from Spain, where he gave the crown to his brother Joseph.

In 1809, when Austria was again defeated, the battle of Wagram closed a series of victories too numerous to be enumerated; and Napoleon was now thinking of founding a dynasty. For this purpose he first obtained a divorce from his faithful and noble wife Josephine, and then married (in April 1810) Marie Luise, daughter of Francis I of Austria. Their desired son and heir, born in 1811, was entitled King of Rome.

The height of ambition, so rapidly attained, was succeeded by a »decline and fall« almost as rapid. In 1812, Napoleon led to Moscow an army of more than 400,000 men, for the subjugation of Russia; but his design was frustrated by the burning of Moscow in the same year (September 14–21). Failure of provisions, then compelled him to retreat. Hunger, cold, and exposure to the continuous attacks made by the enemy, destroyed his army. Meanwhile Prussia, now reorganized, had made an alliance with Russia and Austria, and in the great fight at Leipzig (16–19 October 1813) a victory was won over the forces commanded by the hitherto indomitable Corsican. In the next year, when the victorious allies entered Paris, he renounced his claim to the throne, and retained only Elba as a sovereign principality; but his career was not so ended. On the 1st of March, 1815, he landed in France, where the magic of his name was powerful enough to place him again at the head of the army and — hailed by the people as their Emperor — he returned to the Tuileries, there to reign for only one »hundred days«. At last, defeated by the Allies at Waterloo (18 June 1815) he was banished, as a prisoner of war, to St. Helena, where he died on the 5th of May, 1821.

Napoleon was one of those phenomenal men, appearing now and then in the course of the world's history, whose greatness is to be chiefly ascribed to their own powerful will and ability. He was one of the most distinguished among all the military heroes of all times; but generous feelings of humanity and other virtues, were wanting, to make him a true ruler of men, and worthy of such a title as »the Great«.



After T. G. S. del. & engr.

After T. G. S. del. & engr.

N A P O L E O N

Louis XVIII, King of France, 1814—1824

Born 17 November 1755, died 16 September 1824

Louis XVIII, Stanislaus Xaver, fourth son of the Dauphin Louis, by his wife Maria Josepha of Saxony, was born at Versailles, on the 17th of November, 1755, and in his earlier life was entitled Count of Provence. Under the government of his brother, Louis XVI, he took a part in politics, and gained some popularity; but the outbreak of the Revolution induced him to retire from public life, and he left France in June 1791. He openly protested against certain revolutions of the National Assembly; and a Court was collected on his side at Coblenz, where he and his brother, the Count of Artois, resided. When the Legislative Assembly had annulled his claim to the throne (in January 1792) he took part with the Prussians, then operating in the Champagne; and after the execution of Louis XVI, he without delay issued a manifesto, in which he proclaimed his nephew, the Dauphin, as Louis XVII, while he took for himself the place of Regent. At his residence in Verona, he was known as the Count of Lille; but after the decease of the Dauphin (1795) he assumed the King's title. To escape from the agents of Napoleon, he subsequently often changed his place of residence, and in 1807 made his escape into England.

The fall of Napoleon led to the issue of another proclamation, in which Louis asserted his claim to the throne; and on the 3rd of May, 1814, he entered Paris as King. His first measure was to grant to the nation (in June of that year) a Charter of constitutional government, by which he endeavoured to make more amicable the relations of the King and his subjects. Success might have attended the well-disposed ruler, and gradually the confidence of the people might have been won; but difficulties were raised by the interference of supporters of the old nobility and the clerical party, and the royal charter was made less liberal. Again, after the "hundred days", Louis, who now resided at Ghent, honestly endeavoured to suppress the reactionary tendencies of his opponents, and in 1816 a moderate and liberal ministry was formed, to mediate between contending parties; but the murder of the Duke of Berry (the King's nephew), served to strengthen the party of reaction, and the King was now induced to send an army into Spain, there to restore absolute monarchy. On the 16th of September, 1824, Louis XVIII died, leaving no children. With his last breath he earnestly entreated his successor, the Count of Artois, to rule in accordance with the principles of the Charter.

Louis XVIII was not destitute of talents and culture. He read the ancient classics, studied philosophy, and made some attempts in poetry. Moderate and loyal in his views and his own political measures — he deserved to be classed with the best of the Bourbons, and was certainly a better man than could be found among the advisers who led him, against his own will, into a reactionary policy.



Louis XVIII.

Gilbert, Marquis de Lafayette, French General and Staatsman

Born 6 September 1757, died 20 May 1834

Marie Jean Paul Roch Yves, Gilbert Motier, Marquis de Lafayette was born at the chateau Chavagnac in the Auvergne, 6 September 1757. His parents, who died while he was young, were descended from an ancient family, and left him heir to their large estate. When only sixteen years old, he married a daughter of the Duke of Ayen — also granddaughter of the Duke of Novilles — and by this union made himself connected with some of the most influential families in France.

Lafayette was stationed as a lieutenant of Dragoons, at Metz, when he heard that the North American Colonies had revolted against the English government. Seized with their enthusiasm, he fitted out a ship at his own cost, and sailed for North America — disregarding the opposition of the French Court, and the objections urged by his own family. His chivalrous character won for him the friendship of Washington, and Congress appointed him General-Major. He soon gained military honours, first in the battle of Brandywine, 11 September 1777, and subsequently, in several engagements, showed himself a brave and able General. Early in 1779, he returned to France, there to gain support for the revolution in America, and, in 1780, he again crossed the Atlantic, to cheer the colonists by a promise that French auxiliaries would soon be sent to them. The defence of Virginia was now confided to him, and he succeeded in his endeavour to obstruct the way of Lord Cornwallis, so that Washington had time to bring up his forces against the English General, shut up at York Town. In repeated attacks on the place, Lafayette gained the highest honours, and Cornwallis was forced to capitulate, in October 1781, when the fortune of the war was decided. Lafayette then returned to France. In 1784 he again visited the United States, and the colonists made great ovations in honour of their hero.

In France his republican principles had made him unwelcome to the Court, and he did not interfere in political movements until the outbreak of the Revolution, when he was elected to represent Auvergne, in the Assembly of the General States. Here, on the 11th of July, 1789, he made his celebrated declaration of »the rights of man«, and presided over the stormy sessions of the 13th and 14th of July, followed by his appointment as General Commandant of the newly instituted National Guard, then collected in Paris. His services in its organization deserved the highest praise. He was still out of favour at Court, and especially disliked by the Queen, on account of his advocacy of a thorough reform, although he saved the royal family at Versailles, 6 October 1789. On the other side, he offended the extreme democracy by his programme in favour of a constitutional monarchy, representation of the people, trial by jury, religious toleration, emancipation of slaves, freedom of the press, and abolition of hereditary nobility. The Constitution of the 14th July 1790, for which he had so earnestly contended, had been accepted when he resigned his office, and retired to his rural estate Lagrange. From this retreat he was called by the outbreak of war against the allies, 1792, when he accepted the command of the Ardennes army, and on several occasions led it to victory. In June the rising of the populace against the King recalled Lafayette to Paris; but his efforts here were not successful. He could neither persuade the National Assembly to punish the riotors, nor induce the suspicious King to accede to the scheme for making his escape to Compiègne. By his interference, in this instance, and in another soon following, Lafayette offended the extreme republicans, who treated him as an outlaw and, finding himself unable to resist the growing power of anarchy, he tried to escape into Flanders. He but was arrested by the Austrians in Rochefort and kept in close imprisonment until 1797. After his liberation, he refused to sacrifice his principles, in order to win Napoleon's favour, and therefore retired to his estate Lagrange; but in the epoch of the »Hundred Days«, he again, for a short time, took a part in politics, and especially, after the battle of Waterloo, demanded the deposition of Napoleon. The negotiations for a truce with the allies were aided by Lafayette, and after 1818 he joined as a Deputy the ranks of the Extreme Left, in opposition to the reactionary policy of the government. In 1824, accepting the invitation of Congress, he again visited the United States. On his return to Paris, he resumed his seat as a Deputy, and supported the Extreme Left party, until the July Revolution of 1830. He now accepted the command of the National Guard, and led Louis Philippe to ascend a throne »founded on the people's sovereignty, and surrounded with republican institutions.« But soon afterwards, the course of events induced Lafayette again to rank himself on the side of the Extreme Left. He died in Paris, 20 May, 1834.

Lafayette was a patriotic man, a lover of freedom, inspired with a disinterested enthusiasm, and firm in his convictions. No foreigner had ever won so many friends as hailed again and again his services in America; he loved fame, indeed, but tried to deserve it. He was bold to a fault; and no fear of responsibility or of danger could deter him from his course, when he felt it his duty to save a life, to defend the helpless, or to support law and order.



William IV, King of Great Britain, Ireland and Hanover, 1830—1837

Born 21 August 1765, died 20 June 1837

William IV, Henry, third son of George III, by his marriage with Sophia Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, was born at Windsor, 21 August, 1765. In 1778 he was placed as a Naval Cadet, under Nelson, and, willingly submitting to the hardships of the service, he fairly took his share in some perilous undertakings. In 1786 he was advanced to the post of Captain of a frigate; in 1788 received his titles of Duke of Clarence and St. Andrews, and Earl of Munster; and rose, in 1789, to the rank of a Vice-Admiral. In political affairs he did not disguise his sympathy with the Whigs, but since he was no longer allowed to take a part in naval warfare, he retired more and more from public life. By a morganatic alliance with an actress (Dora Jordans, of Covent Garden) he gave offence to Parliament and the Court, and in 1811 was induced to treat that union as null and void. He married, 11 June, 1818, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen. On account of his small apanage, he lived for some years, remote from public life, at his country seat near London; but his position was changed by the death of his brother, the Duke of York, in 1827. William's succession to the throne being now made nearer, he was appointed High Admiral of the Kingdom. Acting in this capacity, and in opposition to the Wellington Ministry, he sent to Admiral Codrington the secret instruction that caused the naval fight at Navarino, 1827, which was soon followed by the Duke's dismissal from his high office.

Not long before the outbreak of the July revolution in France, the death of George IV, of England, raised his brother William to the throne, 26 June, 1830. His straight forward address, and his knowledge of naval affairs, gained popular favour. For a time the late King's ministers remained in office; but when Parliament met, in November 1830, William was convinced, that the Wellington Ministry was not supported by the nation, and he therefore called upon the Whigs to form a new government under Lord Grey. The chief question of the day was that of Parliamentary Reform. Long and earnest was the contest following, between the Commons and the Upper House, and threatening disturbances arose among the people, as in Bristol, where an insurrection broke out in 1831. The Reform Bill of 1832 ended the agitation for a time; but other questions soon arose to make the remainder of William's reign a stormy periode, especially vexed by contentions respecting the Irish Church, and the law of tithes. For a time, (in 1834) the Tories again held office, but the Whigs were soon recalled. Their domestic measures left but spare time for any great measures of foreign policy, some attention was, however, bestowed on their relations with Spain.

William, who had long suffered from asthmatic seizures, and at last was afflicted with dropsy of the chest, died in the night of 19 and 20 June, 1837. In England, he was succeeded by his niece, Victoria; but in Hanover by his brother Ernst August. A new fundamental law of the State for Hanover had been sanctioned by William in 1833. With him expired the personal union between Hanover and England, that had existed since 1714.

Like his father, King William had simple manners, and liked more than all display, the quietude of domestic life. Outward shows and ceremonies he especially disliked; and he avoided occasions for making a display of his own rank. He was frank in the expression of his opinions. In politics, he was mostly inclined to agree with the views of the moderate Whigs.

— c. 47 —



Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, British General and Statesman

Born 1 Mai 1769, died 14 September 1852

Sir Arthur Wellesley, third son of Garret Colley, Viscount Wellesley, and Earl of Mornington, was born 1 May, 1769, at Dungan Castle, in Ireland. He was educated first at Eton, and then at the military school of Angers in France. In 1787 he entered the army as an Ensign, and soon afterwards purchased a commission as Lieutenant Major in a regiment of infantry. After service in Holland, 1794, he was sent to India in 1797, and here won high distinction in the war against Tippo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, 1799, and later, in the Mahratta war of 1803. He returned to England in 1805, and was elected Member of Parliament for Newport. Though his services in the House of Commons were not remarkable, he was appointed, in 1806, Secretary of State for Ireland. In the following year, when the British Ministry sent an expedition against the Danes, to prevent their alliance with Napoleon, Wellesley conducted the negotiations for the capitulation of Copenhagen.

Greater distinction followed his military success in Portugal where, in 1808, he arrived with a corps of 8000 men, and in August defeated the French under Junot, at Rolega and at Mineira. In 1809, when the French Marshal Soult appeared in Portugal, the success of Wellesley was continued. The French forces were driven back by his attack made on them near Oporto; he then pressed forward into Spain, and here, in union with the Spanish army, gained, in July, at Talavera, a victory over the united French armies under King Joseph's command. Wellesley was now made Baron Douro of Wellesley and Viscount Wellington of Talavera. But reinforcements of the French army soon arrived, and compelled him to lead back his own army into Portugal, where, in the summer of 1810, a French army of 80,000 men, led by Marshal Massena, appeared. The English hero now availed himself of a position long ago contrived and prepared, for the defence of Lisbon, and by a cautious retreat, placed his troops behind the strongly fortified lines of Torres Vedras, which Massena dare not attack. Early in 1812, Napoleon, when making his preparations against Russia, recalled from Spain a part of the French forces there. Wellington now led his troops again into Spain, and captured both Ciudad-Rodrigo and Badajoz, then defeated at Salamanca, 22 July, the French, now commanded by Marshal Marmont, and by this victory drove King Joseph from Madrid. Soon afterwards, however, Soult's division of the French army appeared again, and Wellington once more retreated. Early in 1813, he was made Commander in Chief of the Spanish army, and in June his glorious victory of Victoria made sure the liberation of Spain. By that great success, the French army led by Marshal Jourdain was driven from the field. In England the rank of Field Marshal was now bestowed on the victor, and the Spanish Cortes made him Duke of Victoria. But more remained to be done before the French could be utterly driven out Spain; for Soult had reorganized his defeated army, and now led it again over the Pyrenees. Meanwhile, Wellington captured San Sebastian, in September 1813, and Pampelona, in October; he gained in November a victory on the Nivelle, and in 1814 drove back Soult to the walls of Toulouse which was surrendered in April. For these services, Wellington was promoted to the rank of Duke of Wellington and Marquis of Douro, 3 May, 1814. After the first of February, 1815, he was for some time engaged as plenipotentiary at the Congress of Vienna; but was again called to the field by Napoleon's landing in France. The allied forces of Great Britain, Hanover, Brunswick, and Holland, were now commanded by Wellington, and at Waterloo, 18 June, encountered the French army led by Napoleon. Repeated and resolute attacks were most bravely resisted by the allies, and their victory was made sure by the arrival of the Prussian forces led by Bliicher. Wellington, made Prince of Waterloo, by the King of Holland, was appointed to the supreme command of all the garrison troops left in France by the allies.

After his return to England, Wellington, in the Upper House, supported more and more the policy of the extreme conservative party. In 1827 he was made Chief Commander of the British land forces. In 1828 he was First Lord of the Treasury in the Tory Cabinet that resigned in November 1830, when a Whig Ministry was formed. His firm opposition to Parliamentary Reform made him for a time unpopular, but in 1834-35 he was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and from 1841 until June 1846, he was, as a Minister without any distinct department, led by Peel to support the policy of Free Trade. In later years, he lived far remote from party strife, and enjoyed the favour and esteem of the people. He died, 14 September 1852, at his residence, Walmer Castle, near Dover, and was interred, with royal pomp, in St. Paul's, on the 18th of November.

The greatness of Wellington was owing, not so much to his genial ideas, as to his acute understanding and inflexible will, aided by a lively sense of duty, and a dispassionate judgment.



Clemens Wenzel Nepomuk Lothar Prince of Metternich, Austrian Statesman.

Born 15 May 1773, died 11 June 1859

Clemens Wenzel Nepomuk Lothar, Prince of Metternich-Winneburg, born at Coblenz, on the 15th of Mai, 1773, was descended from an old and noble family in the Rhineland. His father, Francis George Charles Metternich (who was raised to the rank of a Prince of the Empire, in 1803) married Maria Beatrix Aloisia, née Countess of Kageneck, and Clemens Wenzel was their oldest son.

After a course of studies in Strasburg and Mayence, he began his diplomatic career at the congress of Rastadt, where he represented the Westphalian Curial; and in 1803 he was employed in a mission of more importance. As ambassador to the Court of Berlin, he was so far successful, that in 1805 he persuaded Prussia to join the alliance against Napoleon. In 1806 he was sent as ambassador to Paris, and here, by his pleasing address and influence in society, he gained the favour of Napoleon, and was thus enabled to obtain for Austria the favourable concessions made by the treaty of Fontainebleau (10 October 1807). When the meeting of Napoleon with Alexander of Russia had taken place, Metternich advised Austria to prepare secretly for warfare. This plan was betrayed, and Napoleon's anger was of course excited, against the ambassador, who was expelled from France when the war broke out (in May, 1809). After the defeat at Wagram, Metternich was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs (8 October 1809, and now to prevent a closer union of France and Russia, he endeavoured to conciliate Napoleon, whose marriage with the Arch-duchess Marie Luise was a result which the Minister had earnestly desired. His policy was changed after Napoleon's disaster in Russia. He met the Emperor in Dresden (28 July 1813) but their remarkable conversation, on that occasion, led to no result. It was now the plan of Metternich, to make privately preparations for joining the alliance against Napoleon, and first he was careful to obtain from the allied powers such concessions as would be favourable to Austria. Henceforth he was the chief leader in European diplomacy, and his important services were justly rewarded. After the battle of Leipsic, he was made a Prince of the Empire, and in the name of the allied Princes, he signed the Peace of Paris. He was the soul of all transactions at the Congress of Vienna, where he acted as a mediator among the powers assembled; but never failed to remember chiefly the claims of Austria. His able diplomacy — employed also at the several congresses of Aachen, Karlsbad, Troppau and Laibach — won for him honours almost as extensive as his services.

In 1818, the King of the Two Sicilies made him Duke of Portella, and in 1826 the King of Spain conferred on him the rank of a ducal Grandee. In Austria he was appointed, in 1821, Chancellor of the Household and the State, and in 1826, as President of Ministerial Conferences on domestic affairs, he attained, in fact, the highest official position in the State. These honours were retained after the decease of the Emperor, Francis I (1835).

The policy of Metternich was founded on the principle of stability, implying the conservation of established forms of government; and on this principle he contended for the preponderance of Austrian policy. Princes (he maintained) must rule over the destinies of their subjects, and must be responsible to God alone. The aid given by Russia to the Greek insurrection was (as Metternich believed) a great crime. At home, he would, for the sake of peace, suppress every idea of revolution; every popular notion of liberty. Accordingly, he maintained a strict censorship of the press, and spread over the realm the power of a well-organized police. This despotic policy, led at last to the revolutionary outbreak of 1848; so violent that Metternich, (whose life was threatened) made his escape to England (13th of March) and did not return until November, 1849, when he first came to Brussels; then (in June 1851) retired to his estate Johannisberg in the Rheingau. In September he returned to Vienna, where henceforth he took no official part in politics. Far advanced in years, he died, on the 11th of June 1859, five years after the decease of his third wife, the Countess Melanie Zichy-Ferraris.

Metternich's chief merit was, that, with a masterly hand, he piloted the Austrian State through all the dangers of that critical year, 1813. He knew — as hardly another diplomatist has known — how to educe, out of certain given circumstances, the greatest possible advantage, and how to evade, or overcome, the difficulties attending his own measures.



Jerôme Bonaparte, King of Westphalia, 1807—1813

Born 15 November 1784, died 24 June 1860

Jerôme Bonaparte, the youngest brother of Napoleon I, was born at Ajaccio, on the 15th of November 1784. In 1792, when Paoli, as president of the department Corsica, had proscribed all opponents of the English party in Corsica, the Bonaparte family escaped to Marseilles, and soon afterwards Jerôme — having concluded his course of studies in the collège of Juilly — enlisted as a common soldier in a regiment of cavalry. He had gained some distinction in Elba, when he was advised by his brother Napoleon to enter the naval service. Passing quickly through lower duties of the Marine, he took the command of the brig *L'Epervier*, and was soon engaged in charge of French stations in the Lesser Antilles. To avoid English cruisers, he returned by way of the United States, and during his stay in America, he married Eliza Paterson, daughter of a rich merchant in Baltimore. His brother Napoleon having declared this marriage null and void, denied the legitimacy of the children, and Jerôme in 1805, when he had returned to France, was thus led to separate himself from his wife.

As a Captain engaged in a squadron commanded by Admiral Villamez, Jerôme next gained distinction in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic and consequently (in 1806) was raised by Napoleon to the rank of Vice Admiral. Soon afterwards he was made General of a Brigade in the land army, and led Bavarian and Würtemberg troops in the war against Prussia. In this campaign he conquered Silesia.

At the Peace of Tilsit (1807) his services were richly rewarded. A kingdom was made for him by the union of territories taken away from Hessen-Cassel, Hanover, and several other States, over which Jerôme — now entitled King of Westphalia — formally ruled. But he never reigned in the hearts of his subjects. In accordance with his assumed royalty, he now was married to Catherine, daughter of the King of Würtemberg. The Court of Westphalia displayed a love of splendour and a careless expenditure; but Jerôme could win neither the love nor the esteem of his subjects, who regarded with suspicion and secret aversion the King imposed upon them.

He served as a General in the campaign against Austria (1809) and in that against Russia. After his brother's fall and during his confinement in Elba, he lived at Trieste, but was active again during the "hundred days", and commanded the left wing at Waterloo. When the battle was lost, and Napoleon, resolved to die here, placed himself at the head of the Guards, his brother Jerôme addressed to him (we are told) these words: "Here all must die who bear the name of Bonaparte." But Jerôme lived many years after that disaster. When his brother was sent to St. Helena, he was surrendered as a prisoner to Prussia, and was for some time confined in Göppingen; afterwards in Ellwangen. Released by the intervention of his father-in-law, he lived for some time in Rome, and returned to France in 1848, where his rights as a Prince were restored to him. He died on the 24th of June, 1860.



Gravé par M. d'Hérion

*Gravé par H. M. Müller, Chef et F. Müller, f. l.
Gardeur de la May. le Roi de Westphalie*

*Jérôme Bonaparte
Roi de Westphalie, Prince Français*

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